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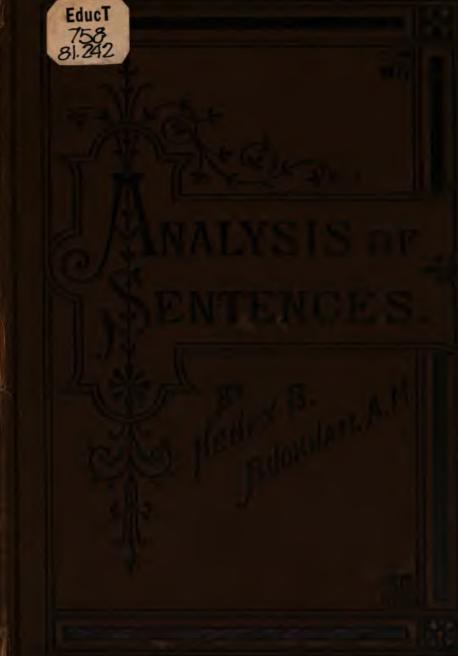
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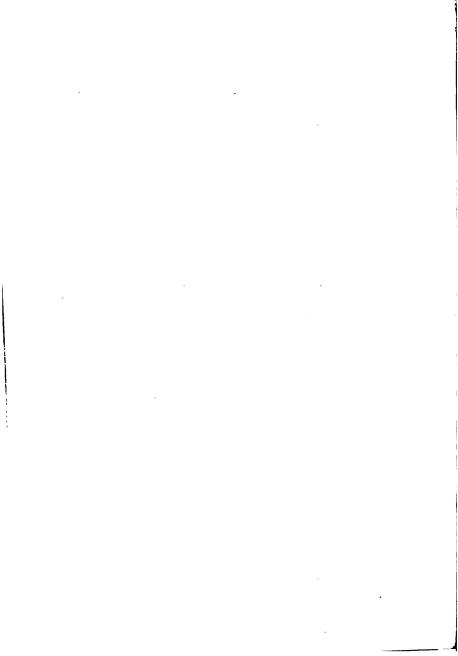


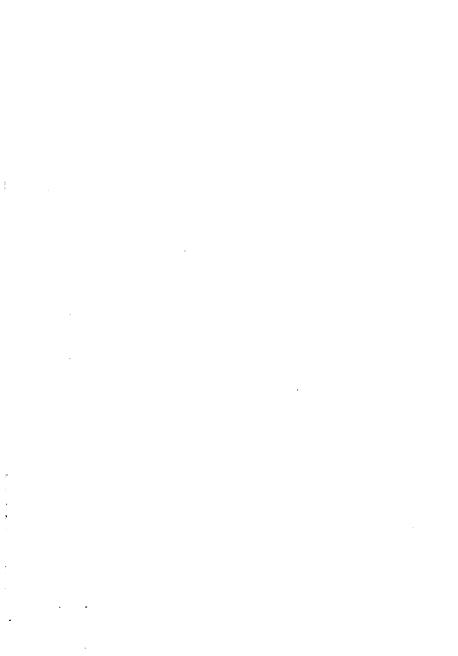
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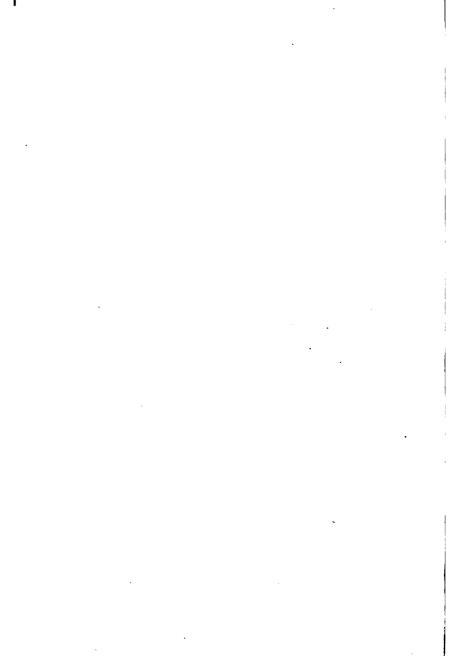
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Analysis of Sentences

BY

HENRY B. BUCKHAM, A. M., PRINCIPAL STATE NORMAL SCHOOL BUFFALO. N. Y.

"The Grammar of a Language is sometimes to be studied by a grown man."

JOHN LOCKE,

"There is the same reason for the study of language that 'here is for the study of thought. The careful study of language cannot fail to make the student acquainted with the laws of the human mind."

FOWLER'S ENGLISH GRAMMAR,

NEW YORK · · · · CINCINNATI · · · · CHICAGO

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W. P. I

PREFACE.

THIS book is not meant to be in any sense a new grammar—Di talem terris avertite pestem—but an application of grammar to sentences, or a book of grammatical praxis. The aim is to present a thorough and exhaustive discussion of the English sentence and its structure, on the assumption of an ordinary knowledge of etymology and syntax previously acquired, and of some elementary analysis and parsing. It is not intended to be a book for beginners, but to be such that, if its contents are mastered, no further study of grammatical elements should be needed.

The study of grammar and analysis is not here defended but is assumed to be useful, and the work proceeds on the basis that, if useful, it is worthy of this patient and thorough study.

No new system of nomenclature is attempted, nor any new code of grammatical rules; all the principles of analysis which are given are derived from sentences found in good writing, and they are applied to such sentences, not to those manufactured for the purpose. A notation for presenting the composition of sentences to the eye is given, but its use is not essential to the teaching of the book.

As just intimated, acquaintance with some grammar is necessary in the study of these lessons, as frequent reference to one may be; but the grammar may be any of the dozen good ones in use in different places. More use of good sentences will be made, however, than of the text or the rules of grammars, the lessons being rather a succession of studies in language, than a formal treatise on etymology and syntax.

The author, as a matter of course, does not expect that his disposal of all the grammatical elements will be wholly satisfactory to all students, to the rigid exclusion of all other views; that, in such a subject as is here treated, would be impossible, if it were desirable; but it is hoped that necessary departures from the doctrines here taught will be few, and that no dangerous grammatical heresies would follow from acceptance of the entire teaching of the book.

TO THE TEACHER.

THE first six lessons are introductory and are somewhat outside of the range of analysis, strictly so called. They are, however, in the author's view, essential to a thorough grasp of the subject, and nothing but want of time should justify their omission. They may be omitted, if they must be, and the study of the subject may begin with Lesson VII.; or, they may be studied last of all. The first thought was to add them as an appendix, but from the consideration that this position might consign them to entire neglect they have been placed at the beginning.

The author deprecates a final judgment of the merits of these lessons from the teacher's opinion of the value of the notation for sentences given. This is incidental—not essential. It has seemed to him a simple and convenient way of representing sentences to the eye; but it can be modified or entirely discarded by the individual teacher; or, any one can substitute his own system of diagrams for this notation.

The analysis here presented does not at all depend on this device for formulating sentences.

The material for practice is meant to be ample and varied. If the quantity of practice required is too great for any given class, selections may be made. The selection of sentences and paragraphs has been made with great care, and it is thought that these will give opportunity of studying all ordinary kinds of sentences and combinations of grammatical elements.

It will be seen that the whole subject is developed from the basis of the Proposition. Let the pupil learn this fundamental lesson thoroughly, with the assurance that there can be no real analysis of sentences without it; this is the key to the whole doctrine of sentences.

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LESSON I.

INTRODUCTORY.

THE RELATION OF SPEECH AND GRAMMAR.

- 1. The power of speech is a natural endowment of the human race. Men speak because they are men, and so are rational and social beings.
- 2. This gift of speech is stimulated and directed in early childhood by the example of others who use language in the hearing of the child, and directly address him in words. This example determines whether a child shall speak English, French, or some other tongue.
- 3. This example also determines, wholly in childhood and in great part for the entire life, whether the use of a tongue is correct or not, whether it is modeled on the national speech as written and spoken by the educated classes or on a dialect peculiar to some part of a country, and, in short, whether it is grammatical or ungrammatical; and this because the child has no other guide to the forms of speech he acquires than the example of those he hears.
- 4. Presently, school-mates and other companions, teachers and lessons, and the books the child reads, add their influence, and either modify or confirm habits previously formed or tendencies already at work.
- 5. Pupils bring to the study of grammar, therefore, habits of speech more or less firmly fixed, and this study does not directly or generally influence, to any considerable degree, ordinary use of language, nor should this be made its exclusive or main design.

- 6. Grammar, then, whether as a subject of school study, or as a strict investigation of language, follows, not precedes, the acquisition of a language as spoken. In neither case does it form or essentially change existing modes of speech.
- 7. Grammar investigates a language, as it already exists, in its approved spoken and written forms, and inquires,
 - (a) how its words may be classified;
 - (b) how they are varied to express different ideas;
 - (c) how they are constructed into sentences.
- 8. Grammar, also, properly considers the derivation and history of words, and the relation of words in different languages; but these and kindred topics are generally treated as a separate science, namely, Philology. Grammar is for the most part restricted to the topics given above.
- 9. Grammar is, therefore, properly a science, and should be studied as a science, and not by children. It may be defined, in general, as the science of language.
- 10. The study of grammar, however, influences speech in two ways:
- (a.) By enabling the student to correct faults, if he will take the necessary pains to do so, through the knowledge of correct uses which it gives, and especially as to forms of words and common constructions.
- (b.) By bringing the student into close and studious contact in all grammatical exercises with the manner of expression used by good writers. Such study adds to the forces already influencing an individual's mode of speech the power of another sort of example, which is impressive in proportion to the attention it receives and the extent to which the study, in this or in any other way, is carried.
 - 11. In so far as this is done, the study of grammar may

lead both to correct use of language and to knowledge of its laws, while its proper province is the latter.

- 12. The general grammatical exercises are: (a.) Dividing words into classes, and learning their forms, such as are given under the heads of declension, comparison and conjugation; (b.) Analysis of correct sentences.
- 13. This analysis may be of two kinds: (a.) Verbal, which deals with single words, their properties and construction. (b.) Logical, which reduces a sentence to thought-elements

and determines their relation to each other.

These two generally go by the name of parsing and analysis, and the analysis is generally treated as grammatical.

- 14. The method of procedure should be to study correct sentences in such number and variety as will bring the learner into contact with all authorized forms of speech.
- 15. The test of proficiency in language should be (a) correct use of it in both speaking and writing; and (b) ability to account in a rational way for all correct forms of expression, and to assign to each factor of a sentence its proper function.

QUESTIONS.

NOTE.—The numbers refer to the paragraphs in the preceding text.

1. What is the origin of the power of speech? 2. How is it stimulated and directed? What determines what language a child shall speak? 3. What is the influence of example on correctness of speech? 4. What beside the example of those about the child at home influences modes of speech? What is the effect of these? 5. In what condition, as to language, do pupils come to the study of grammar? Does this study exert direct influence on modes of speech? Is it directed to this end? 6. Which comes first in order, grammar or language? 7. What does grammar investigate? What does it inquire? 8. How does grammar differ from Philology? 9.

How does grammar consider language? By whom should it be studied? Define grammar. 10. In what ways does the study of Grammar influence speech? How, and to what extent? 11. To what ends may the study of grammar lead? 12. What are the two general forms of grammatical exercises? 18. What are the two kinds of analysis? What is each called? 14. How is a full knowledge of grammar acquired? 15. What is the test of proficiency in both language and grammar?

LESSON II.

INTRODUCTORY.

LOGICAL CLASSIFICATION OF WORDS.

- 1. As words, whether single or in groups, are the material of which sentences are composed, it is necessary to make a fundamental distinction among them, preliminary to any naming of parts of speech or other grammatical elements.
- 2. Words, all words, are signs, or representatives of something.
- 3. Some words—e.g., lake, circle, justice, wise, sweet, blue, buy, promise, study—when once learned in connection with what they stand for, bring this to mind whenever they are seen or heard with attention. The thing, e.g., lake, suggests the name, and the name, when used in any way, suggests an idea or picture of the thing. The two, idea and name, are so associated that one carries the other with it. These words are called idea-words because they thus carry with them a picture, or representation of that for which they stand. They are also called notional words. The term idea-word will be used in this book.

- 4. Other words—e.g., the, of, by, if, else, and, when, most auxiliary and specifying words—have no mental picture as their accompaniment; they have no significance when used alone; whatever they may once have been, they are now only sound without sense, and have no power in language except as they stand with idea-words. Those are called form-words or relation-words. The latter term will be used in this book.
- 5. A third class—e.g., he, they, such, so,—represent other words. They have no meaning of their own, and yet, not being mere relation-words, inasmuch as through the words for which they stand they do, though in a secondary sense, represent ideas, it is more convenient to call them substitutes.
- 6. A word, then, is the sign of an idea, or of some relation of ideas, or a substitute for some other word or words. Or, words represent ideas, relations and other words, and are idea-words, relation-words, and substitutes.
- 7. The definite office of words of the first class is to express the ideas which make the substance of a sentence. These ideas are, in general, those of objects of all kinds with their qualities and states; those of actions and states of being, with their manner, time, place, and various other modifying circumstances; in short, whatever contributes substance, in distinction from form or structure, to the sentence. The student of sentences will be impressed with the fact that objects, qualities and actions—using these terms in their general sense—make the great part of what is said or written.
- 8. The office of words of the second class is to combine ideas by showing direct grammatical connection between them, or by expressing some modification of them. The

specification of all these combinations is impossible. They are very many and very various, and they constitute one of the main difficulties in careful analysis of sentences, as they can be fully understood only by much practice in analyzing. Some of the relations or modifications so expressed are those of addition, opposition, concession, number, cause, agent, origin, possession, time, purpose, result, comparison, etc.

The student of sentences in any language will be impressed with the number and the subtilty of combinations of ideas which are made with the help of comparatively few words, and how much his real knowledge of the structure of sentences and their use as a means of expressing thought, and of expressing it with exactness and nicety, depends upon such skillful combinations as well as upon wealth of ideas.

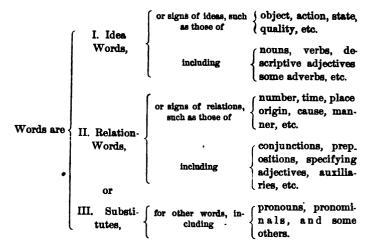
These combinations may, in general, be distributed into seven heads: (a) direct union of subject and attribute by the copula or the copulative verb [see Lesson XI.]; (b) direct union of two similar parts of a sentence, or of two sentences, by a pure conjunction; or (c) of a subsequent to an antecedent term by a preposition; or (d) of substantive, adjective and adverbial clauses [see Lessons XVII., etc.] with some word in the principal clause by an impure, or mixed, conjunction [see Lesson XXXIV.]; (e) those made by such words as same ...as, the....the, more....than, referring whatever they are joined with to some other part of the sentence; and (f) various idiomatic connections which can be understood only by considering individual instances; (g) various modifications of principal terms by means of auxiliary and specifying words.

9. The office of words of the third class is, simply, to take the place of other words; and they refer to them, as antecedents, for explanation and interpretation.

- 10. This distinction of words is fundamental to all thorough study of language. The test to be applied is this question: Does a given word mean anything definite of itself, or is it only a sign of some connection between words which have such meaning, or does it take the place of such words?
- 11. By far the greater part of the words in any language are idea-words: relation-words are comparatively few, but the number of relations of ideas expressed by them is almost infinite; substitutes for other words are still less numerous.
- 12. Idea-words are the staple of sentences; relation-words are equally necessary for connecting the former, as without them the constructing of any but the most simple sentences would be impossible; and substitutes are convenient devices for avoiding unnecessary repetitions.
- 13. Nouns, descriptive adjectives, verbs, adverbs denoting time, place and manner, are idea-words; connectives, including conjunctions and prepositions, specifying and numeral adjectives, auxiliary verbs and auxiliary words in general, are relation-words: pronouns and pronominals, and some other words, are substitutes.
- 14. This classification does not interfere with, or supersede, the ordinary classification of the grammars; it is more elementary than that, and it is logical, rather than grammatical.

NOTE.—The Parts of Speech are given in Lesson XIII. From the general knowledge of them assumed here, it is supposed that no special difficulty will be found in applying the classification to the sentences which follow. There seems no convenient way of avoiding the use of a single new term—substitutes—in this classification; but as the words included under this term really differ from those in the other two classes, its use is justifiable on the ground of necessity.

15. Synopsis of logical classification of words.



QUESTIONS.

1. What is the material of sentences? What is the nature of the first distinction to be made among words? 2. What are all words? 3. What do words like lake, sweet, etc., carry with them? What are they called, and why? 4. What is the significance of such words as of, if, etc. ! What are they called, and why ! 5. What is the use of such words as he, they, and some others? What may they be called? 6. What then is a word? What three fundamental classes? 7. What is the definite office of idea-words? What are, in general, the ideas so expressed? What fact will impress the student of sentences? 8. What is the definite office of relation-words? What about those combinations? What are some of the relations so expressed? What fact about them will impress the student? Into what heads may they be distributed? 9. What is the office of words of the third class? 10. What test distinguishes them? Into what heads may they be distributed? What test determines to which class a word belongs? 11. What is the relative number of words

in each class? 12. What is the relative importance of each class of words? 13. What parts of speech belong to each class? 14. How is this classification related to the ordinary one of the grammars? 15. Write out a synopsis of this classification.

APPLICATION.

Tell to which class each word of the following belongs:

I went to work upon this boat the most like a fool that ever a man did who had any of his senses awake. I pleased myself with the design, without determining whether I was ever able to undertake it; not but that the difficulty of launching my boat often came into my head; but I put a stop to my own inquiries into it by this foolish answer which I gave myself: Let me first make it, I'll warrant I'll find some way to get it along when it is done.—Robinson Crusoe, Chap. IX.

So he (Capt. John Smith) had a great deal to do in keeping them to their duty, teaching them to cut down trees and build houses, drilling them as soldiers, and exploring the country to procure food. His punishment for idleness was starvation; and in order to cure profane swearing, he kept a daily account of every man's oaths; and at night, in penalty for each oath, he poured a can of cold water down the offender's sleeve. He himself worked harder than anybody; so that the others were put to shame by his example.—Higginson's Young Folk's History of U. S., page 114.

NOTE.—If it is thought best by the teacher, this practice may be extended to giving at least the general idea, or relation, expressed by the word, as action, quality, possession, etc.

It may be well, also, to extend this practice to other passages; this will depend, in part, on the teacher's estimate of its value. If this is done it will be interesting to call attention to the relative number of words of each class in any short piece of ordinary writing. It will soon

be discovered that the little form-words are very necessary parts of the language, that the different words of this class are very few in number, and that in what is called simple writing, like Robinson Crusoe, they are relatively more in number than in what is called fine writing. Some of the class will also be interested in reading what is said about them in Trench's English, Past and Present, Lecture I. The entire lecture is good reading on the subject of these lessons.

LESSON III.

INTRODUCTORY.

STRUCTURE OF SENTENCES: JOINING OF WORDS.

- 1. IDEA-WORDS are the substance of sentences, but standing alone they express only detached ideas. It is necessary, next, to inquire how they are joined to express thought, or to make sentences.
- 2. Certain words enter into sentences simply by being placed together just as they are; that is, they are joined grammatically by putting one with the other directly. For example: in sweet sugar, sweet is written before sugar, just as it is; so are one and book directly joined in the phrase, one book; so are the three words in the sentence, I study grammar.
- 3. If the noun book and the adjective ten are to be connected, a change must be made in one of them; we do not write ten book, but changing book to books—that is, making the noun plural number—we write ten books. So if the words John and book are to be joined, John is changed by adding an apostrophe and the letter s, and we write John's

book. If John is to be joined with study, the latter is changed to studies, and we write John studies.

In this case, also, words are joined directly, or immediately, but with some change in the form of one or both. changes, which are learned in the grammars, words are made to express various relations of number, gender, case, mode, tense, etc. The change is in the form and not in the idea expressed by the word, which is essentially the same in whatever relation it stands to other ideas.

- 4. Other words can be joined only by the help of words standing between them. For example: if wise and man are to be joined, they are simply written together as wise man; but if the words wisdom and man are taken, it is necessary to use a connecting word, and they are written man of wisdom. So if the word hill is to be joined with the expression the house stands, a relation-word is necessary and we write, the house stands on the hill. If to the sentence, I study grammar, it is desired to add geography, we write, I study grammar and geography.
- 5. That is to say: some words can be put into sentences so as to show by position alone in what relation the ideas expressed by them stand, while others cannot be put into the desired relations without the aid of words used expressly to show their relation. The first are joined immediately, either with or without change of form; the second are joined mediately, that is, by some word, or words, standing between them for this purpose.
- 6. No precise or formal rule can be given to determine whether given words are to be joined in one or other of these three ways. Familiarity with language begets a habit or instinct which is, for the most part, a safe guide, and determines at once without conscious reasoning, or even inquiry, how the

words one desires to use go together into sentences in conformity with the idioms and usages of a language. The practical test is whether a given collocation of words agrees with good usage; or the simple question, is this the way in which others would put these words together and are they intelligible when so joined? One learning to use a foreign language has no such instinct, and puts his words together in a manner ludicrous to the native.

- 7. It must be borne in mind, that sentences must have ideas as substance; that only related ideas can be joined; that mere words, put together, with whatever skill, make no sentence, that is, non-sense, unless ideas are put into proper relations by means of the words used. Language—or the sentence—is but the expression or form; it is with this, however, that grammar deals. It investigates the form in which thought appears, rather than the thought itself. It requires grammatical truth, rather than logical, though these agree with each other.
- 8. Conjunctions, prepositions and relative words generally, are the principal parts of speech used to express relations between ideas; in other words, by the help of these parts of speech idea-words are brought into grammatical connection, and so into sentences as their constituent parts.
 - 9. Synopsis of the manner of joining words.

| Words are joined to express various relations among ideas, | I, immediately | 1. By placing the out change of form. 2. By placing the change of form of or | m together with |
|--|----------------|--|--|
| | II. mediately | by conjunctions, prepositions, relative-words and others, | standing be- tween them and so connect- ing them. |

QUESTIONS.

1. What do idea-words standing alone express? What is necessary in order to make them into sentences? 2. How is sweet joined to sugar, in the expression sweet sugar? 3. How is John joined with book? with study? 4. How is the word wisdom joined with man? the word hill to the expression the house stands? 5. Make a general statement of the three ways of joining words. 6. How can the man ner of joining any given words be determined? What questions give a practical test? 7. What is the relation of words and sentences to ideas? With which of these does grammar deal? 8. What words are used to express relations? 9. Give a synopsis of the manner of joining words.

PRACTICE.

It is required to give the manner of joining the idea-words in the following passages. The three questions to be asked are: (1.) Is —— an idea-word? (2.) With what is it joined? (3.) How is it joined?

NOTE.—Besides the particular point of this lesson, such an exercise will necessarily direct the pupil's attention to the significance of each word as a factor of a sentence, and to the relation of ideas as expressed by the connection of words, and this will make a virtual analysis of the passage without technical terms. Of course, the second question above can be answered only from an understanding of the ideas expressed and their connection. Such an understanding should always precede formal analysis, and the latter then becomes only a methodical and technical statement of the relations of the different factors of a sentence.

NOTE.—In this exercise words substituted for others may be considered as idea-words, as their construction is practically the same.

NOTE.—In all cases, give the first form or root of a word and take all parts of a verb, e.g., was startled, as one word.

Note.—The practice may profitably be varied by asking what ideawords each relation-word joins. The points of the lesson are to show how each idea-word gets into its grammatical place in a sentence, and what is the office of each relation-word.

NOTE.—Once for all, the value of all practice in this subject, as in any other, depends on thoroughness and accuracy. If the passage given in any lesson is not sufficient to teach the lesson in this way, other passages, in the book or elsewhere, may be used.

MODEL.—I is joined directly with was expressing as its—subject. Was expressing is a form of the verb express, and is joined directly with its subject, I. Cry is joined to startled by the preposition by. Guide is joined to cry by the preposition from. When joins its clause with was expressing.

"I was expressing my gladness, when I was startled by a loud cry from my guide, the first I had heard him utter. He pointed to the opposite side of the amphitheatre. There indeed sat an object of melancholy interest, a man who had either been unable to escape or had determined to die. Escape was now impossible. He sat in desperate calmness on his funeral pile. He was a gigantic Ethiopian slave, entirely naked. He had chosen his place, as if in mockery, on the imperial throne; the fire was above him and around him; and under this tremendous canopy he gazed, without the movement of a muscle, on the combat of the wild beasts below; a solitary sovereign, with the whole tremendous game played for himself, and inaccessible to the power of man."—Salathiel, Chap. XX.

"And what is so rare as a day in June?

Then, if ever, come perfect days;

Then Heaven tries the earth if it be in tune
And over it softly her warm ear lays:

The cowslip startles in meadows green,

The buttercup catches the sun in its chalice,
And there's never a leaf or a blade too mean
To be some happy creature's palace."

The Vision of Sir Launfal.

LESSON IV.

INTRODUCTORY.

STRUCTURE OF SENTENCES, CONTINUED: LOGICAL ELEMENTS.

- 1. So far words only have been considered as factors of sentences, and this view leads only to a verbal analysis. Logical analysis, or thought-analysis, deals with groups of words, and inquires not how many words a sentence contains, but how many and what constituent parts, or elements, it has. It is necessary, therefore, to determine next what an element is.
- 2. In the sentence, diligent study always produces results, are five words each expressing an idea, these being, in order, a quality, a subject of action, time repeated, an action, and an object of action. Each of these words is joined immediately to some other word. There are, then, in this sentence as many factors as words.
- 3. But very few sentences are written after such a form; it would be next to impossible to write a sentence of twelve idea-words and no other. In the sentence, From couch to couch, a light step passed in the silence of the night, are seven idea-words, and seven others. How many logical elements does it contain? Couch is joined to passed by from, and again by to, silence is joined to passed by in, and night to silence by of. There are, thus, seven elements, that is, ideas joined together directly or by the help of relation-words. These are, in order, (1) from couch, (2) to couch, (3) light, (4) step, (5) passed, (6) in silence, (7) of night. To state this in another way: three idea-words stand in the sentence,

without any assistance but their position, and four by the help of prepositions. But for the prepositions from, to, in, of, the words couch, silence, and night could not be in this sentence. The idea and the relation are both necessary, as only related ideas make sentences; but one word each is necessary for these in three of the above, while two words each are needed in the other four. Some factors of sentences, then, contain both an idea-word and a relation-word, and others only the former.

NOTE.—Make no account, at present, of the article, but take it with its noun, and see note in Lesson XVII.

- 4. In the sentences, We will go when the bell rings, He lives where I live, He does as he is told, Study that you may learn, the last noun and verb of each obviously has some connection with the first; there is a relation between the two, shown by the respective connectives. These relations are, in order, time of going, place of living, manner of doing, and purpose of studying. These thoughts come into the sentences by the help of the connectives when, where, as, and that. As a factor of the sentence, each of these must be taken as a whole. The bell rings, I live, he is told, you may learn, though each expresses a thought by itself, are nothing in this sentence without their respective connectives. Some elements, then, contain a subject and verb, with a relation-word.
- 5. An element of a sentence, then, must express two things, an idea and a relation to some other idea, and as such is a constituent part or factor of that sentence.
- 6. An element may be in one of three forms: (1) a single idea-word, (2) an idea-word with some word, generally a preposition, to show its relation, (3) a subject and verb, with

some word, generally a subordinate conjunction to show the relation of the two combined to some other part of the sentence.

NOTE.—Any one of these three may have other words joined to it; the essential part of each form only is considered at present.

- 7. Different names are given to these factors in different grammars. The term here used, namely element, is as convenient and as exact as any. Different names are also used to designate the different forms of element. They are called elements of the first class, elements of the second class, and elements of the third class, by some. As convenient terms as any, and probably familiar to students generally, are word-element, phrase-element, and clause-element. It is not, of course, essential that these be used, if others—adjuncts, modifiers, etc.—are preferred.
 - 8. Synopsis of logical elements.

1. By idea-words whose relations are expressed by their position, and 2. By idea-words whose relations are expressed by I. Ideas Simple separate words, generally and their logical prepositions, and II. Relations. elements 3. By subjects and verbs represent whose combined relation is expressed by separate words, generally subordinate connectives, and

A sentence contains as many elements as there are separate expressions of idea and relation in it.

QUESTIONS.

1. How does a logical analysis differ from a verbal one? What does it inquire? What term must next be discussed? 2 When are single words constituent parts of a sentence? Give examples of

sentences which contain as many elements as words. 3. Can long sentences be made wholly by idea-words? In the sentence given, what ideas are joined directly? How do couch and silence and night come into the sentence? How are the idea and the relation expressed? What, then, do some elements contain? 4. In the sentence given, how is the last part connected in thought with the first? How is this connection expressed? What, then, do some elements contain? 5. What must an element express? What does it thereby become? 6. In what three forms may elements be? 7. How is each form named? 8. Give a synopsis of logical elements. How many elements does a sentence contain?

PRACTICE.

Select from the following passages the words, or groups of words, which, separately, make an element of the sentence, and state whether each is word, phrase, or clause, and, also, to what the word *is* is joined, and how.

MODEL.—Trust is a word-element, joined directly with is as its subject. Conferred is a word-element, joined directly with trust. On me is a phrase-element, joined to conferred by the preposition on. Which a citizen can receive is a clause-element, joined by which to trusts understood after weighty.

The trust conferred on me is one of the most weighty which a citizen can receive. It concerns the grandest interest of our Commonwealth, and also of the Union in which we are indissolubly linked. Like every post of eminent duty, it is a post of eminent honor. A personal ambition, such as I cannot confess, might be satisfied to possess it; but when I think what it requires, I am obliged to say that its honors are eclipsed by its duties.—Charles Sumner to the Legislature of Massachusetts.

You speak like a boy—like a boy who thinks the old

gnarled oak can be twisted as easily as the young sapling. Can I forget that I have been branded as an outlaw, stigmatized as a traitor, a price set on my head as if I had been a wolf, my family treated as the dam and cubs of the hillfox, whom all may torment, degrade, vilify and insult; the very name which came to me from a long and noble line of martial ancestors denounced as if it were a spell to conjure up the devil with? And they shall find that the name they have dared to proscribe—that the name of MacGregor—is a spell to raise the wild devil withal. -Rob Roy, in Sir Walter Scott's romance of that name.

LESSON V.

INTRODUCTORY.

STRUCTURE OF SENTENCES, CONTINUED: LOGICAL ELEMENTS.

- 1. Preceding lessons have shown, in part, of what and how sentences are made. The business of analysis is not to construct sentences, but to take them to pieces; but in order to do the latter intelligently, it is necessary to have a clear understanding of the former. The importance of this as a preparation for profitable analysis is so great as to justify a repetition of these lessons in a slightly different form.
- 2. The words mountain, book, merciful, sweet, emigrate, deceive, which are all idea-words, make no sentence standing in whatever order, because there is no obvious or discoverable connection among the ideas, nor will any transposition of the words or the introduction of relation-words readily

suggest any such connection. They express simply six detached ideas, which cannot be put into any grammatical relations of case, number, subject and predicate, because the ideas are incongruous. No rules of syntax can force these two nouns, two adjectives and two verbs, the common material of sentences, into grammatical harmony. They will not take the form of a sentence, because these ideas do not make the substance of one. Not all ideas, then, or successions of ideas, allow of being constructed into sentences by any grammatical device, but only those which have some natural relations among themselves.

3. Again, such an arrangement of words as this, contrived for the purpose of illustration, the swollen river timidly shrank within its widening channel; and this, not one bit less absurd though taken from a story in a paper devoured by thousands of readers, I am transcendently your peer, look like sentences. The latter would pass muster with many who read words only; and both, with all their falseness of ideas, might be parsed mechanically. There are in them what have the likeness of subjects and predicates and adjectives; that is, the words stand near each other in apparent relations, and the words are good words as in real sentences.

Why, then, is neither of these collections of words a sentence? Because there is no such relation of things as seems—or rather sounds—to be expressed in them. To speak of a swollen river's being timid, or of any river's shrinking within a bed which is growing wider, or of any one's being transcendently—that is, exceedingly, in the highest degree—the peer, or equal, of another, is lunatic. The seeming relation of the words goes for nothing because there is no such real relation of ideas. Sense and syntax must agree in sentence-making. Not all printed collections of words, then, though joined in

apparent union, make sentences, but only such as when so joined express true relations of ideas, and so express thoughts.

5. Again. Such a succession of words as this, mother, child, garden, flowers, play, find, is no sentence, and can be put in no order to make one. As in the other instances, they are, as they stand, merely unconnected idea-words. But the mind at once perceives that relations exist among the ideas expressed by them, that the material of sentences is there, and that the words only need constructing to make a sentence.

So with the words a, the, at, from, with, in, an.ong; they cannot make a sentence, because there is no material of ideas. The first list contains nothing to make a sentence with; the second list contains nothing to make a sentence of.

Out of the two lists of words more than one sentence can readily be constructed; as, the mother found the child at play among the flowers in the garden; or, the mother finds the children playing with flowers from the garden.

- 6. Notice that the ideas, the materials, are all from the first list; the sentences contain nothing but what is there; the constructing of the words into sentences is accomplished by the help of the relation-words in the second list. The ideas expressed by the first are put into proper relations by the connecting links of the second list.
- 7. Notice further, that as many sentences can be made out of these words as there are different relations existing or discoverable among the ideas they express.
- 8. The content of a sentence depends on the number of properly related ideas it expresses and the manner in which these relations are combined.
- 9. The logical accuracy of a sentence depends on the exactness of the relations asserted to exist among the ideas which

make its substance, and the corresponding exactness of grammatical construction with which these relations are expressed.

10. It is not said or meant, of course, that sentences are composed by selecting lists of idea-words and of relation-words, and then skillfully weaving them together. Things are seen or thought in their relations, and are then expressed as seen or thought. But all sentences can be reduced by analysis to these elements. When they are decomposed they are found to have been made of these materials, in this manner, and with these limitations.

QUESTIONS.

1. What must be clearly understood as a preliminary to intelligent analysis of sentences? 2. Why cannot the six words given be made into a sentence? 3. In what respects do the collections of words given appear like sentences? 4. Why, then, are they not sentences? What collections of words alone make sentences? 5. In what respect are the words given like those in paragraph 2? In what respect unlike? Construct sentences out of the two lists. 6. What two points may be noticed about those sentences? 7. How many sentences may be made out of these, or any lists of words? 8. On what does the content of a sentence depend? 9. On what does the logical accuracy of a sentence depend? 10. How are sentences really composed? What does an analysis of them discover?

PRACTICE.

For practice of this lesson, vary the form of sentences found in any passage in this book or in the reader; that is, construct other sentences with the idea-words of any sentence, by putting them into different relations with each other.

LESSON VI.

INTRODUCTORY.

ESSENTIAL STATEMENTS AND DEFINITIONS DERIVED FROM THE FOREGOING LESSONS.

- 1. THE example of others, familiarity with books in reading, and mental habits, directly fix ordinary manner of speech, both as to grammatical correctness and essential quality.
- 2. The study of grammar in the direction of etymology, parsing and analysis, only indirectly and slightly affects modes of speech; it may be made to do so only by special attention to the correction of incorrect or careless habits already formed and of which the pupil is aware; even so, its results are confined mainly to forms of words and the most ordinary constructions. Accurate English may be spoken with absolutely no knowledge of grammar, as grammar.
- 3. The study of grammar properly belongs to adults, and deals with language as a product already formed, and as such brought before the mind for investigation.
- 4. Grammar coming after language, its province is to recognize and classify established forms of speech, to indicate and, if necessary, to guard against innovations and improper tendencies, and to record changes authorized by reputable writers and speakers.
- 5. Sentences express thoughts; thoughts are expressed by words properly constructed; they are so constructed when the elements which compose them are put into such form and in such order as good usage, that is, grammar, authorizes. Sentences so constructed are said to be "good English."

Collections of words from which the sense may be guessed, though not expressed in "good English," are not sentences in the grammarian's sense of the word. He deals with good sentences only, in which sense and syntax agree.

- 6. Grammar is the science of language, and as such sets forth the principles of an art—that of speech—already in general practice.
- 7. The study of grammar includes the etymology and syntax of words, the composition and functions of thought-elements, and is applied and practiced in parsing and analyzing sentences.
- 8. The unit of grammar is the sentence; grammar deals with nothing beyond sentences, and it may, in this view, be defined as the doctrine of sentences.
- 9. Sentences are composed, primarily, of words. Words are signs or representatives, and may be divided into three great divisions: (a) those which represent ideas, or ideawords, (b) those which represent relations or relation-words, and (c) those which represent other words, or substitutes.
- 10. The great mass of words in a language are idea-words; the relation-words are few, though many relations are expressed by them; the substitutes are also few.
- 11. The substance of sentences is idea-words; their form and structure depend on the combination of these, with or without the help of distinct relation-words.
- 12. Words are joined (1) directly by their position, with or without change of form, and (2) by some word standing between them.
- 13. A sentence is the grammatical form of a complete thought; or, it is a thought expressed in words.
- Or, a sentence is the form in which idea-words are so combined as to express the thought intended.

- 14. The constituent parts or elements of a sentence are, each, the expression of an idea and its relation to some other idea.
- Or, an element is such a word or group of words as expresses one of the constituent ideas of a sentence.
- 15. Elements may take the form of a word, a phrase, or a clause.
- 16. Only those ideas among which some natural relation exists can be put into grammatical relations by means of words.
- 17. Analysis is the separation of a sentence into its thoughtelements, and describes them as to name, structure, and office. It is the opposite of synthesis or composition, which combines elements into sentences.
- 18. Parsing assigns to each word its individual and distinctive office; analysis does the same with elements.

QUESTIONS.

1. What determines ordinary manner of speech? 2. What is the direct influence of the study of grammar on speech? How may it be made to influence speech? Is knowledge of grammar essential to accuracy of speech? 3. To what age does the study of grammar belong? How does it deal with language? 4. What is the province of grammar? 5. When are sentences in "good English"? What has the grammarian to do with sentences not written in good English? What two things agree in good sentences? 6. What is grammar? 7. What does its study include? 8. With what does grammar deal? From this, how may it be defined? 9. Of what are sentences composed primarily? Into what classes may words be logically divided? 10. What is the relative number of words in each class? 11. What is the substance of sentences? On what do form and structure depend? 12. How are words joined? 13. What is the relation of a sentence to a thought? 14. What do elements express?

15. What form do they take? 16. What ideas can be put into grammatical relations? 17. What is the relation of analysis and synthesis? 18. How does parsing differ from Analysis?

NOTE.—For those who omit the study of these introductory lessons, it will be necessary to repeat some of the foregoing definitions in the lessons which follow.

LESSON VII.

PRELIMINARY DEFINITIONS AND STATEMENTS.

NOTE.—The lessons which follow presuppose knowledge of etymology and syntax, and some practice in analysis. Necessary definitions, and brief explanatory text on each point in analysis, are given, and full synopses of all divisions of the subject are added for reference.

For those who have studied the six introductory lessons, this lesson will be mainly review, but it is essential for all who begin at this point.

- 1. A SENTENCE is the verbal expression of a thought, or a thought expressed in words. Sentences are known by their making complete statements.
- 2. Sentences are composed of words so arranged and joined together as to express the sense intended.
- 3. Words are of three sorts: (a) those which represent ideas, (b) those which represent relations between ideas, and (c) those which stand for other words. These may be called idea-words, relation-words, and substitutes.

NOTE.—The teacher must make such explanations of these terms and those which follow as are necessary. It is supposed that he will have gone thoroughly over the preceding lessons, and he is referred to them for illustrations and practice.

4. Words are joined in several ways:

- (a) by being placed together without change; as, this book, we study, James is to go home.
- (b) by being placed together with some change of form; as, these books, he learns his lessons, your brother's book has been lost.
- (c) by some relation-word, generally a preposition or a conjunction of some kind, standing between them; as, grains of wheat, he lives in New York, he studies with diligence, come when you can.
- 5. Analysis is the separation of a sentence into its component factors, or elements, and stating their relation to each other.
- 6. A careful distinction must be made between words and elements of a sentence.

A word is the sign of an idea, or of a relation, or it represents some other word.

An element is a word, or a group of words, expressing an idea and a relation to some other idea.

- 7. Sentences will be considered as to their mode and structure.
- 8. Elements will be considered as to their form, rank, office, and structure.
- 9. The elements of sentences, to be considered in order, are six in number, viz.: the Proposition, the Adjective Element, the Objective Element, the Adverbial Element, the Independent Element, and the Sentence Element.
- 10. The entire subject of grammatical analysis is embraced in the topics given in the last three statements.

QUESTIONS.

1. What is a sentence? How are sentences known? 2. How are sentences composed? 3. What three sorts of words? 4. How

are words joined? 5. What is analysis? 6. What distinction between words and elements? Define an element. 7. How are sentences to be considered? 8. How are elements to be considered? 9. How many elements are there, and how are they named? 10. What is the content of grammatical analysis?

LESSON VIII.

SENTENCES AS WHOLES: THEIR MODE.

- 1. ALL who use language understand that sentences make statements. A collection of words which make no statement is generally useless, and all readily recognize the statement if the words used make one. The grammarian's term for "make statements" is assert, or predicate.
- 2. All statements, or assertions, are not made in the same manner. There are five principal kinds of assertions.
- 3. Some sentences simply make statements, properly so called: that is, they directly assert facts, or what are taken to be facts; as, The earth shook and trembled, His cohorts were gleaming in purple and gold.
 - 4. There are different forms of this manner of assertion.
- (a.) Some sentences are affirmative, as those just given. (b.) Some are negative; as, The battle is not to the strong alone. (c.) Some are doubtful; as, perhaps, we shall go. (d.) Some
- (c.) Some are doubtful; as, perhaps, we shall go. (d.) Some are positive and strong; as, ye shall surely die.

They all agree in making a more or less direct statement of fact, and are called Declarative sentences.

- 5. Some sentences ask questions. These are of two forms:
- (a.) Those which contain some special interrogative word;

as, Who goes there? What shall we say then? Why sit ye here all the day idle? These are generally called indirect questions. (b.) Those which ask by a change of order of the words, generally by putting the verb or its auxiliary first, and the subject second; as, Is this true? Will ye also go away? Was ever anything so absurd? These are generally called direct questions.

Some sentences are declarative in form, but really ask a question; as, You dare to question my authority? You did do it, then?

All these may take the simple affirmative form, or the negative, or a more positive form, as declarative sentences do.... They all agree in that they ask questions in one way or another, and they are called Interrogative.

- 6. Some sentences use the imperative mode of the verb. This is used in different senses.
 - (a.) As giving a command; as, Do as you are told.
- (b.) As giving permission; as, Go, if you have set your heart on it.
- (c.) As giving advice, which is more or less nearly a command; Be just and fear not; Do not run into danger.
- (d.) As entreating; as, Give us this day our daily bread; Listen to my words.
 - (e.) As expressing a wish; as, O king, live for ever.

Sometimes a command is put into a milder form by using the word let; as, Let your communications be yea, yea; Let this never be said of you.

Sometimes a sentence is declarative in form, but imperative in fact; as, Thou shalt not kill; You will report as soon as you arrive.

These, again, admit all the variations of affirmative, negative, etc., given above. They all agree in that they use the

imperative mode in form or in fact, and they are called IMPERATIVE sentences.

- 7. Some sentences assert in an emphatic or passionate manner. They may do this in two ways:
- (a.) By the manner of utterance, the words and their order remaining as in other sentences; in this way almost any sentence may become emphatic or passionate.
- (b.) By the addition of some word of emphasis or feeling with or without change of the order of words. The added words are adverbs, and the change of order generally puts the subject between the auxiliary and principal verbs as in questions. For example: How are the mighty fallen! This is beautiful, indeed! What a shame it is!

These sentences agree in making their assertions with some strong feeling or emotion, and they are called Ex-CLAMATORY sentences.

It is to be noticed, however, that while some sentences are exclamatory in form, any sentence—declarative, imperative, interrogative—may become exclamatory by being used with feeling or strong emphasis.

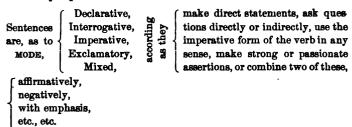
- 8. To these should be added a fourth variety, that which combines two of the foregoing in the same sentence. These are commonly
- (a.) Declarative with interrogative; as, It is right, and shall it not be done?
- (b.) Imperative and declarative; as, Be good and you will be happy.

These may be appropriately called MIXED sentences, or they may be described by the separate parts of which they are composed.

9. These kinds of sentences differ in their manner of assertion. The grammatical term which denotes manner of

assertion is *mode*; sentences, then, may properly be said to be of the declarative, interrogative, imperative, exclamatory, or mixed mode.

10. Synopis of sentences as to mode:



QUESTIONS.

1. What do sentences do? What is the grammarian's term for this? 2. How many kinds of assertion are made? 3. How do some sentences assert? 4. What are some of the varieties of this sort? In what do they all agree? What are they called? 5. What else do some sentences do? What are some varieties of this sort? In what do they agree? What are they called? 6. What mode do some other sentences use? In what senses is this used? What other forms of this? In what do all agree? What are they called? 7. How do some other sentences assert? In what two ways? In what do these agree? What are they called? What is to be noticed about this kind of sentence? 8. What should be added to these? What two varieties of them? What may they be called? 9. How do these kinds of sentences differ? What term expresses the principle of classification? What modes of sentences? 10. Define each, and write out a synopsis.

PRACTICE.

Tell whether each of the following collections of words is a sentence; if not, tell what is wanting to make it such: if it is, tell the mode, definitely.

1. Now mount with me the old oak stair.

- 2. The moon came up the summer sky.
- 3. Full fleetly sped the morning hours.
- 4. Here are no backward glances toward the earth.
- 5. But why any ceremony at all?
- 6. The world is a notched stick.
- 7. Meantime let us discuss radical problems without fear.
- 8. O shame, where is thy blush?
- 9. Better go under than go down.
- 10. Give nature a chance to rally!
- 11. Abolish the so-called evil, and you abolish the good.
- 12. How I loved that gracious boy!
- 13. God do so to me and more also.
- 14. Closely following came—what do you suppose?
- 15. What news? what news? your tidings tell!
- 16. Are you tired of your life? said he.
- 17. Is it far away in some region old, Where the rivers wander o'er sands of gold?
- 18. Away went Gilpin! who but he?
- 19. Is it the palm, the ocean-palm, on the Indian sea, by the isles of balm, or is it a ship in the breezeless calm?
- 20. Let us follow the sounds; it may be a wanderer starving on the hill.
- 21. O Rome, that sat upon her seven hills and ruled the world!
 - 22. You are brave only in spots, O orthodox friend!
 - 23. What a kaleidoscope of changing views!
 - 24. You're a friend of Cæsar?
 - 25. This is a discovery, indeed!
- 26. Unequaled archer! why was this concealed? To slay thee, tryant, had I killed my son.

LESSON IX.

FORM AND BASIS OF ELEMENTS.

NOTE.—The form of elements has been presented, in general, in Lesson IV, but it is necessary to discuss it here in the regular development of the subject.

- 1. The principal or leading idea of an element, together with its relation-word, if any, is the basis of the element and determines its form and office. It is necessary, then, to be able to recognize at once this basis, in order to name and describe an element. It may be defined as the principal idea of the element with its relation, or that on which all the rest of the element depends.
- 2. As to form, this basis may be a word, a phrase, or a clause, and the element is named accordingly.
- 3. When a single word is the basis of an element it is always an idea-word. This term, however, must be held to include compound words, and compound forms which taken together express one complex idea; as, book-case, having begun, should have been done.
- 4. A word-element, then, is one whose basis is a single idea-word, or a compound form which may be taken as one, with or without added words.
- 5. A phrase is, strictly, any group of words having grammatical relations with each other but not making a statement. It is convenient to use it in analysis in a restricted sense, viz., as meaning a preposition with its object, or a verb in the infinitive mode with its sign to.
- 6. A phrase-element is one whose basis is a phrase, with or without added words.
 - 7. To prevent ambiguity, it is necessary to assign a defi-

nite use to the term clause. A clause is a subject and predicate, which by means of a coördinate connective makes part of a compound sentence, and by means of a subordinate connective makes part of a complex sentence. It is in the latter sense that the term clause-element is generally to be understood.

NOTE.—It is necessary to anticipate the explanation of the terms coördinate and subordinate connective, and complex and compound sentences. It is presumed, however, that they will be sufficiently understood for the purpose of the definition.

- 8. A clause-element, then, is one whose basis is a connective, subject and predicate, forming part of a complex sentence.
- 9. Any one of the six elements, excepting the proposition, or subject and predicate combined, may take any of these three forms; that is, the basis of any one may be a word, a phrase, or a clause. It will be seen in Lesson X what forms the parts of the proposition may take.

QUESTIONS.

1. What is the basis of an element? Wha? does it determine? 2. What may be its form? 3. What kind of word may be the basis? What must be included in this? 4. What is a word-element? 5. What is a phrase, strictly? How is it restricted here? 6. What is a phrase-element? 7. What is a clause? 8. What is a clause element? What form may the six elements take?

PRACTICE.

Select from the elements which are printed in italics in the passages below the word or words which form the *basis*, and state the *form* of the element and what it seems to be joined with, and how.

| MODEL. —— is | the basis of —— | which shows it to |
|-----------------------------|--------------------|-------------------|
| be a word- phrase- element. | It is joined to —— | { directly |

NOTE TO THE PUPIL.—Be sure that what is stated to be the basis of an element expresses both an idea and a relation.

"Sick men looked from their beds. Women and chidren, blind with fright, darted shrieking from the houses. A fierce, gaunt visage, the thrust of a pike, or blow of a rusty halberd—such was the greeting that met all alike. The commander snatched his sword and target, and ran toward the principal breach, calling to his soldiers. A rush of Spaniards met him; his men were cut down around him; and he, with a soldier named Bartholomew, was forced back into the court-yard of his house. Here stood a tent, and as the pursuers stumbled among the cords, he escaped behind the house, sprang through the breach in the western rampart, and fled for the woods.—Parkman's Pioneers of France.

"Now glory to the Lord of Hosts, from whom all glories are! And glory to our sovereign Liege, King Henry of Navarre! Now let there be the merry sound of music and of dance,

Through thy cornfields green, and sunny vines, O pleasant land of France!

And thou, Rochelle, our own Rochelle, proud city of the waters.

Again let rapture light the eyes of all thy mourning daughters."—Macauley's Ivry.

I was lying during a fiery noon on the edge of the island, looking toward the opposite coast, when in the stillness of the hour I heard a strange mingling of distant sounds, yet so totally indistinct that I could conjecture it to be nothing but the raising of the Siege.

LESSON X.

ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES: THE PROPOSITION.

- 1. The way is now prepared to begin the analysis of sentences, and the first step is to find the *basis* to which all the other parts are added.
- 2. Every sentence makes a statement, or more than one. The logical basis of a sentence is the judgment or thought expressed in it. This may be expanded into details, with added circumstances and limitations, so as to be complete and full; or it may be confined to one fact without expansion or additions. In any case, a sentence is based on thought, and is the expression of that thought.
- 3. Every sentence implies (a) something to think about and to speak about, and (b) something thought and said. These two are equally necessary parts of every sentence, and are named the subject and the predicate, and their combination is a Proposition.
- 4. It is obvious, then, that the proposition is the basis of the sentence, as it expresses in its simplest form, what every sentence must contain.
- 5. What may be the subject of a sentence? Whatever some thing can be thought and said about. It may be (a) an object of sense; as, stars shine; (b) an object of thought but not of sense; as, mercy tempers justice; an action or state; as, to sing is pleasant; any group of words of which taken, as a whole, something may be said; as, that you have wronged me doth appear in this: in short, the expression of any thing about which a thought or judgment may be formed.

- 6. The subject of a sentence is known by its answering the question who or what, with the asserting word; as, A is a vowel: what is a vowel? A. Five and four make (or makes) nine; what make nine? Five and four. If this question is answered as simply as it can be without doing violence to the sense, the simple subject is discovered.
- 7. What may be predicated of a subject? Whatever judgments are formed of it by thinking.

Knowing what is meant by bitterness, hardness, transparency, and comparing the properties of glass, for example, with our notions of these, the judgment is formed that they are in, or belong to, glass.

Children may be observed doing acts which agree with what is known as playing, reading, laughing, studying, etc.

By comparing Charles with what we understand a scholar. a gentleman, an errand boy, to be, we judge that he is, or is not, a scholar, a gentleman, or errand boy.

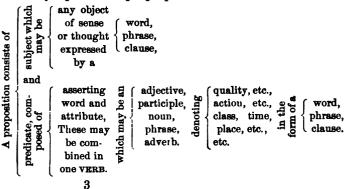
If we know what being in debt means, or being above reproach, or being about to sail for Europe, we may judge whether Mr. Brown does or does not come under these descriptions.

- 8. If these judgments should be put into words just as they are thought, they might take one of two forms.
- (a.) One is this: brittle glass, laughing boy, Charles the Student, Mr. Brown about to sail for Europe. In this case, the quality, action, circumstance is said to be assumed of the person or thing. About glass thus assumed to be brittle, or Charles thus assumed to be a scholar, something might be asserted; as, brittle glass must be handled with care; Charles the scholar is not a rich man.
- (b.) The second form is this: glass is brittle, boys are playing, Charles is a scholar, Mr. Brown is about to sail

for Europe. In this case, the quality, action, circumstance is asserted of the person or thing.

- 9. The essential difference between these two forms is made by the insertion of the word is between the person or thing and the quality or circumstance. Let it be clearly understood that without the word is the quality or circumstance mentioned is assumed, and that with this word it is asserted. Grammarians say that brittle in the first form modifies glass, and that it is predicated (or asserted) of glass in the second.
- 10. The union of the subject and what is said of it by means of some asserting word [see next lesson] is a Proposition. The word or words which tell what is asserted without the asserting word is called the Attribute; those words with the asserting word make the Predicate.
- 11. Propositions assert (a) quality, or whatever else the adjective may denote, when an adjective stands in the predicate; as, time is short, we are seven; (b) action, or whatever else the verb may denote, when a participle stands in the predicate, or when the verb is attributive [see next lesson]; as, snow is falling, the [old] year dies; class, when a noun stands there; as, wheat is a vegetable, James was a king, and identity, or some circumstance of time, place, condition, etc., when a phrase is there; as, to hear is to obey, he is at home, he was in disgrace.
- 12. Some adverbs are used in the predicate; as, he is here, this is so; occasionally some other forms are found; most propositions, however, assert one of the four predicates given above.
- 13. The words which express the predicate in the simplest way without doing violence to the sense make the simple predicate.

- 14. The subject and the attribute may be a word, a phrase, or a clause; the asserting word, is of necessity, a word only, or some compound verbal form.
 - 15. Essential statements and definitions in brief form.
 - (1.) The Proposition is the basis of the sentence.
- (2.) A PROPOSITION is the UNION of SUBJECT and PREDICATE.
- (3.) The SUBJECT is any thing about which a statement is made.
 - (4.) The ATTRIBUTE is what is said about a subject.
- (5.) The ASSERTING WORD joins the attribute with the subject.
- (6.) The ATTRIBUTE and the ASSERTING WORD make the PREDICATE.
- (7,) Without the asserting word the attribute is assumed; with it, it is asserted.
- (8.) Propositions assert, in the main, quality, action, class, and some circumstance of time, place, etc.
- (9.) The proposition contains three distinct parts, viz: SUBJECT, ASSERTING WORD, and ATTRIBUTE, except when the two latter are combined in one verb.
 - 16. Synopsis of simple propositions.



QUESTIONS.

1. What is the first step in analysis? 2. What does every sentence make? What is the logical basis of a sentence? How may the thought appear? 3. What must every sentence contain? What is the combination of these? 4. What is the relation of the proposition to the sentence? 5. What may be the subject of a sentence? Give specifications of this, 6. How is the subject known? Give illustrations. How is the simple subject found? 7. What may be predicated of a subject? Give specifications of this. 8. In what ways may judgments be expressed? 9. What is the essential difference between these two forms? 10. What must be the relation of subject and attribute in a proposition? What is the distinction between attribute and predicate? 11. What do propositions assert? What parts of speech are used? 12. What other predicates? 13. How is the simple predicate found? 14. Of what form may the parts of a proposition be? 15. What is the proposition to the sentence? Define Proposition; Subject; Attribute. What does the asserting word do? What make the predicate? What difference does the asserting word make? What do propositions assert? What distinct parts does the proposition contain? What exception to this? 16 Give a synopsis of simple propositions.

PRACTICE.

Analyze the simple propositions which follow, after the model given; then *select* the propositions from the sentences following and analyze in the same way.

NOTE.—The examples for practice in this lesson are confined to those which contain either the asserting word to be, or the verb which combines the asserting word and the attribute. Others are given in the next lesson.

The teacher is urged to made thorough work of propositions, as they are the key to the entire subject. When these are mastered, the rest is easy. Let the practice be extended till this is accomplished.

Articles may be taken with their nouns; so may all possessive pronouns.

NOTE.—Once for all, it is not, of course, essential to follow the models given. Teachers have their own way of doing all this school work. The models are not meant to supersede better ones, but only for the use of those who have none of their own. They are made to be as simple and compact as possible, but the *form* is not essential. It is essential, however, that the teacher should require all such work to be done in an orderly manner, and that the analysis which practices first lessons in any division of the subject should be careful and minute.

PROPOSITIONS TO BE ANALYZED.

Anger is cruel. Time is a stream. To hear is to obey. The wind was still. He is in debt. Where were the children? The glow was gone. Tears will start. The turf shall be my shrine. Thoughts are prayers. There's nothing bright. Behind us are the Moormen. Skill is in vain. The morning cometh. The sail is the banner. The sentiments were elevated. His lot was to die. His knowledge was without ostentation. The request was granted. The men were famishing. The prophet was foot-sore. The army was on the march. Her hands are cold. The dew was on the grass. Here's a sight. The train is on time. To lie is base.

Sentences from which the proposition is to be selected, and analyzed by the model given.

- 1. It was a summer eve,
 - Old Caspar's work was done; And he before his cottage door Was sitting in the sun.
- 2. But now a faint tick was heard below from the pendulum.
- 3. As to that, is there not a window in your house, on purpose for you to look through?
 - 4. Now is the proper time.
 - 5. Ah! how easy it is to read what it was so difficult to write.
 - 6. There is John Foster; what a great writer he was!
- 7. Work is not an end in itself. The end of work is to enjoy leisure, or the reward of toil is rest.
- 8. What are children? The street is full of them. Yonder a school is let loose, and here are two or three noisy little fellows, and there is a party mustering for play. Some are whispering while others are holding aloof. The child is father of the man. They are the blossoms of another world whose fruitage is archangels.
 - 9. Your specimens are all about you.
- 10. We are all surprised some time in our lives at the good turns men do us when we least expect them.

LESSON XI.

THE VERB IN PREDICATION: THE PROPOSITION.

- 1. KEEPING in mind that the proposition is the key to analysis, that every proposition contains an assertion, and that the asserting words of a language are verbs, it is obvious that a full understanding of the verb in predication is essential.
- 2. All predicates assert the existence of some attribute in the subject; or, in more general terms, the connection of

some circumstance of quality, action, situation, condition, etc., with the subject; that is, again, they contain an asserting word and something asserted.

- 3. With this view of predicates, there are four cases to be considered, giving four kinds of verbs.
- 4. The pure copula. This is the verb to BE, the verb of existence, the most general in its signification, the most frequent in its use, and the most important verb in the language. All languages contain such a verb, used in essentially the same way.
- 5. Its chief office is to assert the connection of attribute and subject. Its primary and fundamental sense of existence, or being, is not wholly lost; but it does not so much assert the existence of anything as independent substance, as that attributes belong to the subject of assertion, which must, therefore, itself exist. Two examples will make this plainer.
- 6. Honey is sweet. Here sweetness is asserted of honey. The assertion is not directly and simply that honey, with the property of sweetness, exists—that there is such a thing as honey—but that the quality named belongs to it. To bring the statement a little nearer to philosophical exactness, the assertion is that the existence of honey is known to us, that is, predicated for us, in its sweetness for one thing. Not the existence of the subject, but the existence of the quality in the subject, is asserted.
- 7. The larks are in the meadow. This is not intended to assert that such birds as larks exist and that they exist in the meadow, but to make the two assertions one by stating about the larks the circumstance of their being in the meadow. This is done by means of the verb are, the asserting word of the sentence, the copula, or link, between the circumstance of place and the larks.

- 8. This office of pure copula is performed, principally, by the verb to be, called also the abstract verb, the substantive verb, the pure verb, the verb of incomplete predication. Other verbs are copulas, with less or more shading towards the predicates named below. These are become, seem, appear, and perhaps some others. These mean a little more than pure copulas; they do a little more than connect subject with attribute; they express, in a slight degree, a verbal idea, but so little of this have they, that they belong to copulas rather than to any other class of verbs.
- 9. Again. The attribute and the asserting word may both be combined in one word which is always a verb, and the assertion made is generally one of action or state.
- 10. Such verbs are called attributive or mixed, because they contain both the assertion and the asserting word. They are verbs of complete predication, because they make assertions without the addition of other words. They may be resolved, however, into the two factors of every predicate, namely, the asserting word and the thing asserted. Thus, trees grow is very nearly equivalent to trees are growing; the king reigned in Hebron, to the king was reigning. The asserting word must be, either apparently or by implication, in every predicate.
- 11. By far the greater part of the verbs in a language are attributive verbs. These are all given in the dictionaries with definitions; but there is no verb "to be good," or "to be in debt," in English; such predicates are always made of the verb to be with some separate word or phrase as a complement.
- 12. The verb to be retains its full sense of existence in such expressions as, God is. The sentence "whatever is, is right," illustrates both uses.
- 13. Again. The verb may be one which generally expresses complete predication, but in certain sentences takes

after it some word or words to complete a peculiar predication. Two examples will make this plainer.

- 14. In the sentence, he walked ten miles, the verb expresses a complete assertion, the words added modifying that assertion by denoting how far he walked. Walked, then, in this case, is the simple predicate. But in the sentence, he walked a king, the use of the verb is different. The sentence is, obviously, meant to assert the act of walking and something more, viz., that character or rank is shown by that act. It is not quite the same to say, he walked and was a king; nor, he walked as a king would walk. It is very nearly equivalent to saying, in, or by, his walk he showed himself to be a king. The principal idea in the assertion is the kingliness of the walk. The simple predicate, then, is walked a king.
- 15. He went a friend who came a foe. Went generally expresses complete predication; here it does not. He and friend are the same person, but they are not in apposition; the first is the subject-nominative and the second predicate-nominative. The meaning is not the same as, he was a foe and came, who went and was a friend; nor, he went as a friend would go, who came as a foe would come. The main idea of the two predicates is in the being a friend in his going, not-withstanding his being a foe in his coming. The nearest equivalent expression is, HE was a friend when he went who was a foe when he came, but this form gives too much prominence to the idea of time. Went a friend and came a foe are the two simple predicates of the sentence.
- 16. Other examples are, He stood every inch a soldier. She moved a goddess. The Lord sitteth king for ever.
- 17. Verbs used in this way are copulative verbs. They are not pure copulas, nor are they attributive verbs; they express

more than the first, and, in this use, less than the second. The test may be two-fold: (a) does the verb in a given sentence express complete predication? (b) is the principal idea of the predicate expressed by the verb, or by the following word?

18. Still again. Verbs which in the active voice take after them a direct object and an attribute of that object, retain the attribute when the verb is in the passive voice, and the verb becomes copulative. For example, the people elected him president, becomes in the passive form, he was elected president. The simple predicate is not, was elected—for that does not make a complete assertion—but, was elected president; was elected is the asserting word and president the attribute, in the same case with the subject. The verb here again is copulative.

RECAPITULATION.—There are four uses of the verb in predication.

- (a.) The COPULA, some form of the verbs to be, to become, to seem, to appear, asserting a connection between the attribute and the subject, the former being always a distinct part of speech and the verb itself making an incomplete predication.
- (b.) The ATTRIBUTIVE VERB, which contains its own attribute, thus making complete predication. It may combine copula and attribute in one word, and it may always resolve its one verbal form into a very nearly equivalent of copula and attribute.
- (c.) The COPULATIVE VERB in two forms; first, a verb which, in most instances making complete predication, is sometimes used in a peculiar sense with an attribute following, the principal idea of the two inclining to be in the attribute rather than in the verb. Second, the passive voice of a verb becomes copulative in its use, when it is followed

by an attribute of the direct object of the verb in the active voice.

QUESTIONS.

1. What does every proposition contain? What are the asserting words of a language? What is the subject of this lesson? 2. What do predicates assert? 8. How many kinds of verbs are to be considered? 4. What is the first? What verb is the common copula? What is said of it? 5. What is its chief office? 6. Give the first illustration. 8. By what name is the verb to be called? What other copulas? How do they differ from to be? 9. What is the second case? 10. What are such verbs called? Why are they verbs of complete predication? Into what can they be resolved? 11. What is said about this class of verbs? How are such predicates as "to be in debt" made? 12. When is the verb to be attributive? Give a sentence illustrating both uses. 13. What is the third case? 14. Give the first illustration. 15. Give the second illustration. 16. Give other illustrations. 17. What are these verbs called? How do they differ from copulas? What two tests may be applied? 18. What is the fourth case? Illustrate by an example. 19. State. clearly, what a copula is, and its office. The same for attributive verbs. The same for the two forms of copulative verbs.

PRACTICE.

| Select and analyze, as before, the simple | propositions in |
|--|---|
| the following sentences, adding the class to w | hich the assert- |
| ing word belongs. The model given will | be changed to |
| read the asserting word is ——— | a copula, a copulative verb, an attributive verb, |
| and the attribute | |

- 1. May I be allowed to inquire whether that exertion was in the least fatiguing to you?
 - 2. The burden seems greater than he can bear.
 - 3. There was no time for reflection.

- 4. Here his presence lingers still.
- 5. Bowing his head, he listened for an answer to his prayer.
 - 6. O, the hands that mine are clasping!
 - 7. The moon hung low in the sky.
 - 8. Thrones look a century older in its light.
- 9. In his time he was reckoned good.
 - 10. Clatter, clatter goes the mill below.
 - 11. His uncle was appointed guardian of the child.
 - 12. The Spartan youth were accustomed to go barefoot.
 - 713. The Lord sitteth king for ever.
- 14. Palsied be the hand that would sever the ties which bind the East and the West.
- 15. Scrooge never painted out old Marley's name. There it stood years after, above the warehouse door. The firm was known as Scrooge and Marley. Sometimes people, new to the business, called Scrooge Scrooge, and sometimes Marley.—Dickens.
- 16. It was summer and I was attending school. The seats were hard and the lessons were dry, and the walls of the school-room were very cheerless. An indulgent, sweet-faced girl was my teacher; and I presume that she felt the irksomeness of the confinement quite as severely as I did. The weather was delightful and the birds were singing everywhere; and the thought came to me that if I could only stay out of doors and lie down in the shadow of a tree I could get my lesson. I begged the privilege of trying the experiment.—J. G, Holland.
 - 17. It was twelve by the village clock,

When he crossed the bridge into Medford town,.

He heard the crowing of the cock,

And the barking of the farmer's dog,

He felt the damp of the river-fog,

- That rises when the sun goes down.
- 18. The conclusion seems to be this.
- 19. Such are a few of the uses of the bamboo.
- 20. The legs are nearly of equal size.
- 21. Peter was not misnamed a rock.
- 22. With this power we must be on good terms.
- 23. Her price is far above rubies.
- 24. The fining pot is for silver and the furnace for gold; but the Lord trieth the hearts.
 - 25. All the sea lies hollow and gray with mist.

LESSON XII.

PARSING.

- 1. It is time to introduce the exercise of PARSING as soon as the simplest form of analysis is learned, and it should be thoroughly practised with every lesson.
- 2. Parsing in full includes these four items: (a) telling the part of speech a word belongs to; (b) giving its properties; (c) giving its construction; (d) quoting the rule of syntax.
- 3. Of these the fourth is almost, if not entirely, useless, the rules being merely formal statements of the construction already given. The second soon becomes a tiresome and meaningless repetition, which need be required only as often as may be necessary to keep the slender etymology of the language in mind.
- 4. The essential points are the *first* and the *third*, or assigning each word to some *definite* part of speech, and giving its *exact office* in the sentence. As a grammatical exercise,

nothing is more instructive than this short parsing. As such, it is recommended for much practice. Let every word in order be named definitely and construed exactly, and let properties and rules be called for as the teacher thinks best.

5. Parsing should be extended to groups of words. Such, or such, a group of words is an adjective or substantive, phrase or clause, with such, or such, an office, as a whole.

NOTE.—This short parsing may be made a rapid and spirited exercise. by each pupil's disposing of one word without hesitation or waste of time, and the teacher's calling at the end of each sentence for the disposal of such groups of words as he may select.

The teacher should require such classification as he may teach or as the books may authorize to be given, but it should be given with precision and minuteness; as, a regular transitive verb, a common noun used as a proper noun, a simple personal pronoun, etc.

The teacher will also need to require the terms he prefers to be used in giving construction; e.g., he will need to rule whether a pupil shall say an adjective relates to, refers to, belongs to, or modifies, its noun; whether an objective case is governed by, or completes the relation expressed by, a preposition. There is, of course, great choice of terms; the author's preference, which is not binding on any one, is indicated in the synopsis of syntax in the next lesson.

6. No detailed forms for parsing are thought necessary, except that the following is suggested as a convenient way of writing a lesson on the board in class, or on paper to be brought into class for correction.

SENTENCE. His cohorts were gleaming in purple and gold.

- 1. His, personal pronoun, limiting 2.
- 2. Cohorts, collective noun, subject of 3.
- 3. Were gleaming, regular intransitive verb, predicate of 2.
- 4. In, preposition, showing relation of 5 and 7 to 3.
- 5. Purple, adjective, used as noun, with 7 completes relation of 4.

- 6. And, coordinate conjunction, connects 5 and 7.
- 7. Gold, noun sui generis, with 5 completes relation of 4.
- 7. The value of the exercise of parsing will depend on the accuracy and quantity of its practice.

QUESTIONS.

1. When should parsing be begun and how long is it to be continued? 2. What four items does it include? 3. Which two of these are least useful? 4. Which two are essential? What does short parsing require? 5. To what should it be extended? 6. What forms are needed? May it then be done in any order and manner? 7. On what will the value of this exercise depend?

LESSON XIII.

SYNOPSIS OF THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

It is not thought necessary to do more in etymology than to give a full synopsis of the parts of speech as they are authorized by the grammars generally.

Synopsis of the different parts of speech:

| 1. Names of | individuals, each one of a class, all a class together, quality apart from gubstance, things, sui generis, actions or states, | proper, common, collective abstract, the modifications of sui generis, verbal, | number, person, gender, case. |
|-------------|---|--|-------------------------------|
| 2. V | Words nouns, or whatev | rer PRONOUNS, number, | of their |

2. Words which represent as nouns, or whatever is taken as nouns, are clauses or sentences pro-sentences. PRONOUNS, having having person, case, of their own.

personal, when the form and simple, or compounded with shows person and number, may be self or selves.

interrogative, when they ask questions;

relative, when they refer to a word in the same senand simple, or compounded with tence, and connect their may be ever or soever.

clause to that word.

For pro-sentences, see Lesson XL.

| 1 | common qualities, | common, | ' |
|--|---|--|--|
| t the ns | names of states or actions used as, compounds formed to make. | compound, | |
| f nou | | compound, | |
| which of the state | some individual cir- cumstance, | proper, | ADJECTIVES, |
| 8. Words which limit the | or number, order, or rank, of the whether a definite or indefinite object is meant, | numeral, ARTICLES, o which are still still | some of them admitting the modification called com- parison. |
| which may either | or represent it when | pronominal | |

NOTE.—All adjectives limit; some do so by designating some quality or property, and others without designating any such quality.

4. Words which make statements and are auxiliary, and are auxiliary, attributive, attributive, attributive, and intransitive in one sense, and intransitive in another, and intransitive in another,

NOTE.—Voice, in grammar, is a form of the verb which indicates the relation of the action to the subject. The voice of a verb is active or passive; the copulas, by their nature, are neuter as to voice. Some verbs, commonly called impersonal, can have only a subject like themselves, or the indefinite it; as, it rains, or, rain rains,

5. Words which express some circumstance of time, place, cause, manner, degree, mode, etc.,

NOTE.—These relations, and others, are also expressed by combinations of words, making adverbial phrases and clauses.

6. Words which connect words, phrases, clauses, or sentences, and thus bring the parts connected into grammatical relations, are

| Solution | Conjunctions | Conjunctions | Conjunctions | PREPOSITIONS | PREPOSITIONS

For full presentation of conjunctions, see Lesson XXXII.

7. Words which express wonder, surprise, joy, emotions of grief, etc., are Interjections.

NOTE.—Participles, classed by some as a separate part of speech, are really forms of the verb, and never lose their verbal nature.

8. Groups of words, which taken together perform the office of nouns, adjectives, or adverbs, are substantive, adjective, or adverbial phrases or clauses.

QUESTIONS.

From the foregoing, with reference to the grammar if necessary, the various parts of speech may be defined, and their divisions may be given, without special questions.

PRACTICE.

Tell what part of speech each word in the following sentences is; if it is necessary—that is, if the pupil is not already quite familiar with such points—nouns and pronouns may be declined, plural numbers formed, the masculine or the

feminine gender may be given, adjectives and adverbs may be compared, verbs may be conjugated, etc., etc. Parts of speech and their etymology should be at the pupil's command before going further.

Some words which will require careful notice are printed in italies.

SENTENCES.

The Gray Boy had had breakfast, and was all ready to go. It had been a hasty meal, but wasn't there to be stuffed turkey and cranberry sauce for dinner? He had bidden the housekeeper good-morning, and had gone up-stairs for a bunch of hot-house rosebuds to take to mamma, and to brush his coat and put on his watch.

He had left them up there on the sitting-room table, all together, a moment ago. And now, could he believe his eyes, his watch was not on the table! The Gray Boy was in great distress. It was near train-time, and then the idea that a thief had been in the house! He ran up to his room to see if he could have left the watch in its case. He ran down, calling aloud to the housekeeper as he went. But she had stepped out. Then he ran back and stood still, looking again at the table.

All at once, high over his head, there was a shrill cackle of laughter. There in the ebony ring which had been hung from the ceiling for his swing, high out of reach, swung the pink parrot. The gold watch was between his claws, the chain shining as it hung. As he met the Gray Boy's eyes, he cackled again, laughed aloud, and shrieked, "Wait a bit, wait a bit."

Yet once more, O ye laurels, and once more, Ye myrtles brown, with ivy never sere,

I come to pluck your berries, harsh and crude, And, with forced fingers rude, Shatter your leaves before the mellowing year. Bitter constraint, and sad occasion dear, Compels me to disturb your season due: For Lycidas is dead, dead ere his prime, Young Lycidas, and hath not left his peer. Who would not sing for Lycidas? He knew Himself to sing, and build the lofty rhyme. He must not float upon his watery bier Unwept, and welter to the parching wind, Without the meed of some melodious tear.

LESSON XIV.

SYNOPSIS OF SYNTAX.

The following synopsis of syntax includes all ordinary constructions of words in English sentences:

- 1. Subject-nominative, or 2. Predicate-nominative
- 3. In the possessive case, to limit the noun following.
- 4. Objective-subject, or, 5. Objective predicate, with verb in the infinitive mode.
- 6. Object of action after transitive verbs and their participles, and, 7. of relations shown by prepositions.
- 8. In the same case—nominative or objective—with I. Nouns are other nouns or pronouns by apposition, when both stand for the same person or thing.
 - 9. Independent or absolute, $\begin{cases} a, & \text{in direct address,} \\ b, & \text{in exclamations,} \\ c, & \text{with a participle in} \\ & \text{abridged clauses.} \end{cases}$ 10. Used as adjectives, particularly to denote material.
 - - 11. Used as parts of compound words.

II. Pronouns may have any construction of the noun except that they cannot be in apposition either with each other or with a noun.

III. Adjectives

1. limit nouns by expressing assumed quality, some specification, some circumstance.

2. complete predicates after copulas, etc.

3. are used as \ with the, to denote persons, nouns \ \ with the, to denote abstract quality.

4. and as parts of compound words.

if finite in mode, are predicates of their subjects, with if in the infinitive mode, may take various constructions, for which see Lessons XXVII and XXIX.

if participial in form, may also take various constructions, for which see Lesson LIII.

V. Adverbs modify

V. Adverbs modify

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between a subsequent term, called the object, and some antecedent term on which it depends.

A preposition without an object following is generally an adverb.

VII. Conjunctions | words, phrases, connect | words, phrases, clauses, so joined | coördinate or subordinate, in various ways.

VIII. Interjections have no syntax.

IX. Substantive, adjective, and adverbial phrases and clauses perform some offices of nouns, adjectives, and adverbs.

The syntax of words is, of course, learned by parsing; but, if the teacher thinks best, the pupil may be required to tell, or to write, in one view, the offices of some part of speech, with the addition of examples.

LESSON XV.

RECAPITULATION AND REVIEW.

- 1. The ground-word of analysis has now been laid in the discussion of classes of words, their manner of union, the fundamental idea of grammatical elements, the basis of the sentence or the proposition, the parts of speech and their syntax.
- 2. The two exercises of analysis and parsing have been begun and are to go on together to the end. They differ in these respects: analysis separates the sentence into elements; parsing constructs words into the sentence; parts of speech, with which the latter deals, do not always coincide with the elements with which the former deals; analysis treats the sentence as a whole made up of component parts; parsing treats the sentence as an aggregate of words, each having a distinct office. The two should deal with the sentence in all its possible grammatical relations.
- 3. The elements, as far as now presented, are very simple; their combination with others will make very complicated sentences.
- 4. To the proposition, with other forms of it not yet considered, are added all other elements. Language consists of propositions and added words, or groups of words.
- 5. The grammarian considers only the relations of parts in sentences, not the relations of sentences. He considers, also, only the *form of expression* in which the thought is conveyed.

- 6. Neither ideas nor words go into sentences at random; only related ideas can be put together and only by proper construction.
- 7. Asserting words are of very great importance in grammar; it is, also, essential to know the difference in the asserting power of the different classes of such words.
- 8. It is important, also, to investigate from the start the nature of different assertions, *i.e.*, whether they affirm quality, action, state, etc., and to be in the habit of stating these as accurately as possible.
- 9. The classes of assertions are but few; but the particular assertions possible are very many; and with the varieties of asserting words, and the modifications of these by added words, the number of assertions is without number.
- 10. It cannot be too strongly impressed upon the student that all parts of the sentence start from and cluster about the PROPOSITION, WHICH IS THE KEY TO THE WHOLE.

QUESTIONS ON THE FOREGOING.

1. In what has the ground-work of analysis been laid? 2. How do analysis and parsing differ? How should the two together deal with the sentence? 3. What is the nature of the elements now presented? Of the combinations of these to be made? 4. What is the relation of the proposition to other elements? Of what does language consist? 5. What does the grammarian consider in the study of sentences? 6. How do ideas and words go into sentences? 7. What is the importance of asserting words? What about them is essential? 8. What, besides, should be investigated from the beginning? 9. What is said about the classes of assertions, as to number? About the number of assertions? 10. Once again, state the importance of Propositions.

GENERAL QUESTIONS IN REVIEW.

1. Define a word. 2. A phrase. 3. A clause. 4. A sentence. 5. How are words joined? 6. What words can be joined? 7. What three kinds of words? 8. Which are most numerous? 9. Give ten of each class. 10. Construct a sentence containing as many ideawords as you can put into it without any of the other kinds. Which class of words is most important? 12. Define analysis. Parsing. 14. Element. 15. What must an element express which is wanting in a part of speech? 16. What is the basis of an element? 17. What forms may elements have? 18. From any book select five elements of each form, and tell the basis of each. 19. What are the six elements of sentences? 20. How are prepositions and conjunctions used as parts of elements? 21. What is the logical basis of a sentence? 22. When is a sentence in good English? 23. What is the relation, in a sentence, between sense and syntax? 24. Can non-sense be analyzed and parsed? 25. Can a sentence whose meaning is not understood be analyzed and parsed? 26. What is the basis of a sentence? 27. Define proposition. 28. What three distinct parts in every proposition? 29. Define each. 30. What may be the subject of a sentence? 31. Select from any book ten subjects, and let them illustrate as many forms as possible. 32. How may the simple subject of a sentence be found? 33. What make the predicate? 34. When may these be in one word? 35. Find five predicates composed of attributive verbs, and separate each into two parts. 36. What three kinds of asserting words? 37. Define each, and give, or find, examples. 38. What parts of speech may attributes be? 39. What does each, with the copula, etc., assert? 40. Find five examples of each kind of attribute. 41. What forms may the attribute take? 42. Find ten propositions, including all varieties, and analyze each. 43. What are the modes of sentences? 44. Find examples to illustrate each variety of imperative sentences. 45. Do exclamatory sentences require any special form? 46. Name the parts of speech. 47. Write a synopsis of verbs, with examples. 48. Write a synopsis of the syntax of nouns, with examples. 49. Of adjectives. 50. What are the essential points of parsing?

LESSON XVI.

ELEMENTS AS TO RANK AND STRUCTURE.

RANK OF ELEMENTS.

- 1. ELEMENTS are of two ranks, viz., principal and subordinate. These terms, as used in analysis, are readily understood. Principal elements are those on which others depend; subordinate elements are those which depend on others. The first make sense by themselves; the second cannot be used alone, for they depend on some other part of the sentence for their meaning. These might be named independent and dependent.
- 2. The principal element of a sentence is the proposition, as has been already seen. All the other parts of a sentence are added to the proposition as a whole, or to some one of its component parts. The meaning of the proposition or of its parts is extended or restricted or in various ways modified by the words, phrases and clauses added to it. These various additions, which are now to be taken up one after another, are all complementary to the proposition—that is, all used to fill out its meaning—and they are all subordinate in rank. The proposition, then, is principal in rank, and is independent; all other elements are subordinate in rank, and dependent.
- 3. The basis of an added element is principal as to the other parts of the element, inasmuch as these depend upon it, while the entire element, including the basis, is subordinate in rank.
- 4. An element depending upon one which is itself subordinate may be considered as subordinate in the second degree;

and one subordinate to this again, as being so in the third degree.

5. The proposition as a whole is independent; its parts are not. A subject is nothing without a predicate, nor a predicate without a subject. If they do not depend on each other exactly as an adjective upon a noun, they are so mutually related that one always implies the other.

NOTE.—No especial practice on the rank of elements is needed here. Let will be useful when complex sentences and subordinate clauses are considered.

STRUCTURE OF ELEMENTS.

1. Elements, whether principal or subordinate, consist of a basis, with or without added words. All words in an element beside the basis are joined directly or indirectly to it. If there be no added words, that is, if a single word, phrase, or clause makes an element, it is simple in its structure. A simple element, then, is one without added words.

This applies to the subject or predicate, or any other element. An unmodified word, phrase, or clause, whether it forms an entire element, or a separate part of another element, is simple.

NOTE.—Of course, an element without modifiers cannot properly be said to have a basis.

2. If there are additions to the essential part of an element—that is, if a word, phrase, or clause is modified—the element is *complex* in structure.

A complex element is one whose basis is modified by added words. This also applies to the subject or predicate, or any other element. A modified word, phrase, or clause, whether it forms an entire element, or a separate part of another element, is *complex*.

3. Elements are made complex by joining dissimilar parts.

They may be (a) unlike parts of speech; as, by joining an adjective to a noun the complex element good books is formed. So by joining an adjective to an adverb; as, very good, etc.

- (b.) Like parts of speech doing different offices; as, two nouns in apposition; e.g., Charles the king; or two adjectives, one of which is used as modifier of the other; as, deep blue.
- (c.) A phrase or a clause joined to a word; as, the mill on the floss; do as you please.
- 4. By these combinations a very great number and variety of complex elements are formed. They represent complex ideas. Scarcely any sentence is found without these complex ideas.
- 5. Two or more similar elements of any kind—subjects, predicates, adjectives, etc.—may be joined by a conjunction and form a *compound* element. These also may be made complex by added words, so that an element may be both compound and complex.

NOTE.—Compound elements cannot be fully treated till conjunctions have been considered. Complex and compound sentences, also, are deferred, for the same reason.

NOTE.—It is not thought necessary to add special practice on structure of elements, as all subsequent lessons will require such practice. These definitions should be learned, as they will be needed for constant application to all the analyses which follow.

Synopsis of elements as to rank and structure:

Elements are, in rank, { principal and independent { the proposition. subordinate and dependent { all others. }

simple, an unmodified proposition, word, phrase, or clause. complex, a proposition, word, phrase, or clause, nodified by added words dissimiliar in { name, office. }

compound, two or more { simple, elements joined by complex, a conjunction.

QUESTIONS.

- 1. What ranks have elements? Define each. What other names?
 2. What element is principal? What is the relation of all other parts of a sentence to this?
 3. What part of a subordinate element is the basis?
 4. When is an element subordinate in the second degree?
 5. What about the proposition in this connection?
- 1. To what are all added parts of an element joined? When is an element simple? Define a simple element. To what does the term apply? 2. When is an element complex? Define a complex element. To what does the term apply? 3. How are elements made complex? 4. What do complex elements represent? Are there many such in sentences? 5. What is a compound element? How can these also be made complex? 6. Write a synopsis of rank and structure of elements.

LESSON XVII.

THE ADJECTIVE ELEMENT.

- 1. Any word or group of words joined to a noun, or to what is used as a noun, is an *adjective element*. The noun so modified may be in any relation to the rest of the sentence, i.e., subject, object, part of adverbial element, etc.
- 2. The adjective element need not, of necessity, contain the part of speech called adjective; whatever is "added to" a noun takes this name.
- 3. The basis of an adjective element may be an adjective, a participle, a noun, a phrase, or a clause.
- 4. The test is whether a given word or group of words modifies a noun; if so, it is an adjective modifier; all that modifies one noun makes one element.
 - 5. The adjective element may denote various modifications

of the noun; as, number, quality, or whatever else adjectives may denote; assumed action, state, or whatever else the participle may denote; identity, occupation, or whatever else the noun in apposition or in the possessive case may denote; and various circumstances of time, place, etc., or whatever else the phrase or the clause as a whole, may denote.

- 6. The same noun may be modified by several distinct adjective elements.
- 7. The simple subject, with its adjective modifiers, makes the complex subject.
- 8. The adjective element is always subordinate, and may be simple or complex in structure.
- 9. Adjective elements, simple or complex, may be found in all parts of sentences; they are named from their office, not from their component parts.
 - 10. Synopis of adjective elements:

An adjective adjective, joined to a noun in phrase, any relation, clause,

apposition,
quality,
specification,
circumstance,
etc., etc.

with or without added words.

QUESTIONS.

1. What is an adjective element? To what noun is it joined? 2. Must it contain an adjective? 3. What may be its basis? 4. What is the test? 5. What may it denote? 6. How many such elements may be joined to a noun? 7. What makes the complex subject? 8. What is the rank of an adjective element? What may be the structure? 9. Where may they be found? 10. Write a synopsis of adjective elements?

PRACTICE.

Analyze the following sentences, so far as they are composed of propositions and adjective elements, according to the model given.

NOTE.—Sentences are selected containing nothing, or little, beyond the elements already considered. A few others are to be found in them in order to accustom the pupil to determine whether a certain word, or group, is an adjective, or some other, element. The sentences are in all cases so simple in structure that the necessary distinction can readily be made. The same kind of sentences will be selected for each following lesson.

Articles may be taken with their nouns, after careful reading of the following note:

NOTE ON THE USE OF THE ARTICLES.

The words which will call for the most useless and most frequent repetition of the phraseology of analysis are the ARTICLES.

What do these words signify? The definite article is a sign to the hearer or reader that some definite thing is intended by the speaker or writer; if it is not supposed to be equally definite to the former, it is made so by a phrase or clause following. For example: I want the book; the is a sign that some particular book is wanted, but it does not indicate the book; that is done, if at all, by some other expression; as, the book on the table; the book which we are using, etc. Very often it stands before the noun as a sign which has no verbal explanation in the sentence, and is thus, as it were, a mere prefix or handle to hold the noun by.

A or an, on the other hand, is a sign that no definite thing is intended, and, of course, nothing follows to explain it.

These two words are, in every instance in which they are used, modifiers of some idea; but to save this constant and tiresome repetition of the same words two or three times in every sentence, take the article with its noun, but frequently ask what it means. For example: I saw the man coming; do not say, every time at least, man is modified by the, a simple specifying adjective element, etc., but frequently ask, what man is the man?

Model.—It is convenient, in analysis of sentences, to have some simple way of representing elements to the eye. The main advantages of this are two: first, that the work of the class may be written out, and, like other work in writing, inspected at a glance; second, to save the tedium of lengthy

oral analyses, which soon become very monotonous from the repetition of formulæ which are often repeated several times in the same sentence. Such model should be as simple as possible; it should not distort the parts of the sentence, and it should show clearly the relation of the parts.

It is recommended that the teacher—unless he has models of his own contriving which he prefers—should use those here given for every sentence; that is, the one for writing out the parsing of sentences given in Lessson XII, and the one which follows for analyzing simple sentences. When complex sentences are reached, an additional suggestion will be made.

SENTENCE.—The fear of the Lord is the beginning of wisdom.

of the Lord¹ $\left\{ \begin{array}{ll} \text{The fear is the beginning} \\ \end{array} \right\}$ of wisdom.¹

SENTENCE.—His denial of the crime, earnestly made in open court, was a great relief to all present.

Analysis. Form II.

 $\begin{array}{c} His,^1\\ \text{of the crime,}^1 \\ earnestly \ made \ in \ open \ court,}^1 \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{c} was\\ \text{denial} \\ \text{a} \ \ relief \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{c} great,^1\\ \text{to all present.}^1 \end{array}$

EXPLANATION.—The proposition is put by itself in the middle, that it may be seen to occupy its real place in the heart of the sentence; with the parts of this are connected their modifiers. Each such modifier is written separately, and shows at once its form and structure, and what it modifies, while the sentence can be readily reconstructed from the parts as written. If it seems best, the office of the element may be indicated by a numeral; adjective elements, which are here taken up first, being marked 1, adverbial 2, and objective 3.

9. Complex elements are not separated into parts, as that would soon lead to needlessly complex forms of writing. This separation into distinct elements, and leaving the sentence so, will give a much clearer idea of its composition than minute analysis will. Such elements may be separated into their component parts as a further exercise.

As the character of this exercise will depend very much on following some regular order, this is suggested, so long as the sentences continue to be simple.

- 1. Let each sentence be written as above.
- 2. Let the form be interpreted in words; thus, denial was a relief is the proposition; his, of the crime, earnestly made in open court, are adjective modifiers of the subject, denial; great, to all present, are adjective modifiers of the attribute, relief.
- 3. Let such complex elements as the teacher may desire be described and reduced to their ultimate elements; as, earnestly made in open court, is a complex adjective element, made is the basis, and is modified by earnestly, a simple, etc., and by in open court, a complex, etc., this being written in form, thus,

made { earnestly, in open court.

- 4. Let such single questions about form, basis, modifying power, etc., as seem desirable, be asked; as, what is the structure of to all present? what is the basis of earnestly made, etc.? how many elements in this sentence? etc., etc. Rapid and skillful questioning will often be the best drill upon the written form, and so may be all that is necessary.
- 5. Let the sentence be written out as a parsing exercise according to Form I, Lesson XII, and let such words and phrases as the teacher may desire, be parsed in full, and let such questions be asked as may be necessary to "bring out" the syntax fully, or to call attention to any peculiarities.

Such an order will enable the class to get through with much work in a recitation period, and will enable the teacher to distribute the work among the pupils so as to keep all busy at something besides listening.

Of course, the order given is not to be followed rigidly, but an order will assist pupils in preparing lessons, and will really assist in class recitations.

SENTENCES.

1. His messenger I am. 2. The question of the library was discussed. 3. The sense of guilt grew stronger. The man's curiosity was excited. 5. James, the brother of Charles, succeeded. 6. This is no man's land. Time, the all-healer, came to his relief. 8. The next letter was to her father. 9. The boy is the shoemaker's friend. 10. The superior of the convent was aunt to the new-born stranger. 11. The old political disputes were at an end. 12. He was President of the Provincial Congress. 13. Many of the early laws were severe. 14. That mighty music was without a jarring note. 15. My requests for dismissal were idle. 16. The governor's splendid palace was on fire. 17. Was this the foretaste of my own afflictions? 18. A strange superstition of childhood-a dread of evil spirits-was my constant terror. 19. There is a land of pure delight. 20. My guide, afraid of his own shadow, turned back. 21. All these were mere terrors of the night, phantoms of a disordered mind. 22. Hard by the farmhouse was a great barn. 23. Here rows of resplendent pewter, brilliant with much labor, dazzled his eyes.

24. The melancholy days are come, the saddest of the year. 25. The happiest bird of our spring is the boblincoln, the merriest singer of the meadows. 26. No situation in

human life is perfectly secure. 27. These bold remarks of the vizier greatly kindled the sultan's rage.

- 28. In sooth, he was a peerless hound, The gift of royal John.
- 29. With this saying, Prospero gently touched his daughter with his magic wand. 30. Tito's talents for diplomatic work had been well ascertained long before this time.

LESSON XVIII.

THE ADVERBIAL ELEMENT.

- 1. ANY word or group of words joined to the predicate as a whole or to either of its parts, to denote the time, place, cause, purpose, result, means, agent, instrument, manner, comparison, degree or mode, of what it asserts, is an adverbial element.
- 2. The adverbial element is also joined to the verb in any relation, to adjectives, to adverbs, and sometimes to nouns, propositions, and sentences; that is, it is joined to whatever an adverb may be joined.
- 3. The basis of an adverbial element may be an adverb, a preposition with its object, a proposition with its connective. Any group of words doing any of the offices given above is an adverbial element, though it does not contain an adverb.
- 4. The modifications expressed by this element are very various; some of them elude statement in a single word. It is desirable to assign a definite office to as many as possible in the analysis of sentences.

NOTE.—Many of these adverbial relations cannot be introduced till complex sentences are considered, as they are expressed, largely, by subordinate clauses.

- 5. As with the adjective element, several adverbial elements may be joined to one part of a sentence; they may be found in all parts of a sentence; they are always subordinate in rank; they may be simple or complex in structure.
 - 6. Synopsis of adverbial elements:

1. What is an adverbial element? 2. To what, further, is this element joined? 8. What may be the basis of this element? 4. What about the modifications it expresses? 5. In what respects is it like the adjective element? 6. Write a synopsis of the adverbial element. Note.—How are many adverbial relations expressed?

QUESTIONS.

PRACTICE.

Analyze the sentences which follow according to the form given.

SENTENCE.—It was never so seen in Israel.

ANALYSIS:

$$It \begin{array}{c} was \\ seen \end{array} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} never, ^{2} \ (time) \\ so, ^{2} \ (manner \ indefinitely) \\ in \ Israel, ^{2} \ (place) \end{array} \right.$$

SENTENCE.—In the meantime, the festivities in honor of the sultan's marriage were conducted in the sultan's palace with great magnificence.

ANALYSIS:

in honor of the princess' marriage,! { the festivities were conducted } { in the meantime,? in the sultan's palace,? with great magnificence.?

NOTE.—The teacher will follow his own judgment about writing out the signification of the added elements, as in the first sentence above. The same remark holds about indicating the office of the elements by numerals. The author's idea is not to disfigure and complicate the written form by too many symbols, but to reduce the sentence to elements which may readily be taken separately for further description.

SENTENCES.

1. The day was intensely hot. 2. A great cheer went up from the forts. 3. The war was beginning in Virginia in earnest. 4. The passage opened directly at the foot of the rampart. 5. I was lying during a fiery noon on the edge of the island. 6. By what indications does manhood commence? 7. The eldest brother was in all respects a remarkable boy. 8. Soon after this, we left Eaton for Ireland. 9. Where shall wisdom be found? 10. For three days he walked about the city. 11. The grand ceremony took place on the next day. 12. Then they were marched to the sea-shore. 13. He was afterward brought before General Washington. 14. A stately squadron of snowy geese were riding in an adjoining pond. 15. The pedagogue's mouth watered at the promise of luxurious winter fare. 16. Ears of Indian corn hung in gay festoons along the wall. 17. In cold weather he was distinguished by a fur cap. 18. Heaped in the hollows of the graves, the autumn leaves lie dead. 19. One afternoon a mother sat at the door of her cottage. 20. The warning of the prudent officer was promptly obeyed by all. 21. One day they were left together at large in a room. 22. The next day at noon we found ourselves fourteen miles from the town.

- 23. In a hollow tree, in the gray old tower,

 The spectral owl doth dwell.
- 24. He sat down at the foot of a tree, prostrate with fatigue. 25. Behind the relic came the archbishop in gorgeous cope, with canopy held above him. 26. At length a great change suddenly came over him. 27. On one occasion a large band was seen by a scout on the further bank of the river. 28. Thence they sailed round the head of the bay to the farthest point. 29. Far out at sea, beyond the sheltering islands, they gazed around them with anxious dread. 30. In the next act, the rightful heir was discovered behind the bars of a prison by the anxious officer.

LESSON XIX.

THE OBJECTIVE ELEMENT.

I. DIRECT OBJECT OF TRANSITIVE VERBS.

- 1. A word or group of words joined to a transitive verb to denote that on which its action is directly exerted is a direct objective element. This element may be joined to any part or form of the verb, used in any relation.
- 2. Transitive verbs express action of different kinds; e.g., that of the senses; as, we see the sun: that of physical force; as, the sun attracts the earth: that of mental energy; as, we study astronomy: that of the feelings or emotions; as, how I wonder what you are; we feel pain: that which results from a cause; as, the law produced no effect, etc., etc.
- 3. A verb is transitive if the idea which it expresses is such that it directly affects, or reaches, or is exerted on, some object; that is, if this idea involves, or makes necessary, two persons or things, one an agent or doer, the other a recipient;

or, the grammars say, if it requires something after it to complete its meaning.

- 4. The objective element is always subordinate; it may be simple or complex; it may be found in any part of a sentence; it may constitute an entire element, or it may be a component part of one, and two or more may be joined to the same word, as the preceding.
- 5. The basis of the direct objective element is generally an idea-word, an infinitive phrase or a subordinate proposition. The latter two are not introduced at present.

One form of an element does not admit of a synopsis.

QUESTIONS.

1. What is a direct objective element? To what may it be added?
2. What kinds of action does a transitive verb express? Give illustrations of each.
3. When is a verb transitive?
4. In what respects is it like the preceding?
5. What is the basis of the direct objective element?

PRACTICE.

Analyze the sentences which follow according to the model, and extend and complete the analysis as suggested in the last lesson.

NOTE.—The sentences given for practice in any lesson may include all the elements previously presented, and now and then an element not yet presented. Remember that all objective elements may be marked with the numeral 3.

SENTENCE.—The sultan, pleased with this answer, kissed the princess fervently.

ANALYSIS:

SENTENCE.—This sudden change in the mind of the king occasioned various rumors.

Analysis:

This, sudden, change occasioned various rumors.

SENTENCES.

1. She wears no diadem on her brow. 2. Them the evangelist heeded not. 3. I will now explain the meaning of this word. 4. The incidents of that day had no direct personal consequences. 5. The first gun fired at Fort Sumter instantly aroused the whole nation. 6. He saw the advance of the Roman column along the plain. 7. She had but one ornament—a plain gold ring. 8. Not another word had I heard about my great expectations. 9. I could recognize nothing of the sort. 10. I was then reading Cæsar at the grammar-school. 11. She next placed herself before the sultan. 12. The heir of an estate often passed his boyhood at the seat of his family. 13. She had selected for her own use, in Roland's magnificent hotel, the smallest drawing-room. 14. The keen-eyed young savage pierced the cheat at a glance. 15. My early readiness in learning encouraged him in this purpose. 16. No busy steps the grassgrown garden tread. 17. The sentinel stars set their watch in the sky. 18. The nymph with the sea-green hair made a courtesy down to the ground. 19. Ulysses, unmoved by her manner, at once followed her into the great saloon. He carried her in his arms up the great flight of steps into the great hall of the palace. 21. The dismal Hecate did not very much like the idea of a journey to the sunny world. 22. Poor Mother Ceres had now found out the fate of her unhappy daughter. 23. Every little girl's flower-bed showed nothing but dry stalks. 24. This enterprise was the most dangerous in the world. 25. The eyes of King Pelias sparkled with joy at this good news.

LESSON XX.

THE OBJECTIVE ELEMENT.

- II. INDIRECT OBJECTS AFTER TRANSITIVE VERBS.
- 1. Many verbs take after them a complement which expresses that to which an action tends, or that which receives the action in a secondary or indirect manner.
- 2. For example: In James gave the book to Charles, the action of giving directly concerns the book, which is the thing given; it also passes on to Charles, who is the recipient of the book. Charles is affected or reached by giving the book; he is, then, an object of the action, but not in so direct a sense as book is; the first expresses that which is given, the second, that to whom the action of giving is extended: the book is given to Charles. Such objects are called secondary, or remote, or indirect; the last named is the most general in use, and is, for that reason, preferred here.
- 3. Such objects are always brought into the sentence by the help of a preposition to show the relation of this object to the action; they are, therefore, in the form of phrases, either simple or complex. The prepositions most commonly used are of, to and for, though others are occasionally found. When the indirect object stands nearest to the verb the preposition is sometimes omitted.
- 4. An indirect object, then, is generally a phrase expressing that to or for which any thing is, or is done, or that to which an action, state, or quality is directed.

NOTE.—The last term, quality, is added to make the definition complete at once. For explanation see Lesson XXI.

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5. Transitive verbs may take both a direct and an indirect object in the same sentence; or more than one of each kind.

QUESTIONS.

1. What complement do many verbs take? 2. Illustrate this by an example. 3. How are such objects brought into the sentence? What prepositions are used? 4. What is an indirect object? 5. What objects, and how many, may a transitive verb take after it?

PRACTICE.

NOTE.—The nature and uses of this element will be most readily understood from examples. The first set of sentences contain little beside the proposition and objects, that the attention of the student may be fixed on this one point, viz., the relation to the verb expressed by this element, together with the difference, as seen in sentences, between direct and indirect objects.

If it is thought best, let indirect objects be marked by the numeral 4. One other point is to be carefully noted, viz., whether the sentence contains both these objects, or whether what looks like an indirect object is an adjective modifier of the direct object.

SENTENCE. He told me this privately.

ANALYSIS:

SENTENCES.

1. I pay my respects to you. 2. Offer me no bribes. 3. This, also, I declare unto you. 4. He stretched forth his hand to the people. 5. Tito did not care a straw for the result. 6. I will tell him every thing about the matter. 7. He spake of his friend with great kindness. 8. He left this matter to my discretion. 9. I ask this favor of you for all my friends. 10. By this gift, I bound him fast to my ser-

vice. 11. The ghost lamented to his son his mother's fall. 12. The fiery count cast defiance at his foe. 13. Both calmly submitted to their fate. 14. We give thanks to God for this succor. 15. Francis I. begrudged his hated rival the glories of the new world. 16. In another letter he alludes with equal ardor to the dawn of freedom. 17. He gave the gold of his praises to persons of fortune. 18. The captain turned a deaf ear to this persuasion. 19. The Swiss won a glorious victory for freedom. 20. Mamma showed me the picture of an old queen in a ruff.

LESSON XXI.

THE OBJECTIVE ELEMENT.

INDIRECT OBJECTS, CONTINUED.

- 1. As already seen, transitive verbs may be followed by son object, or objects, of both kinds. This is true of the active voice only. Such verbs take the direct object for the subject, and retain the indirect object as such, while the subject of the active voice retains its office of agent or doer by means of a preposition. For example: James gave the book to Charles becomes, in the passive form, The book was given to Charles by James, in which to Charles remains what it was, an indirect objective element.
- 2. Many intransitive verbs may be followed by an object whose relation to them is shown by a preposition, that is, by an indirect object; as, all consented to this; an accident happened to the king.

- 3. Certain adjectives, which express active qualities, take after them phrases which denote that to which these qualities tend, that is, again, indirect objects; as, in he is respectful to his parents, the quality expressed by the adjective is not abstract, but is directed to his parents as the objects of its exercise. The predicate in this sentence means precisely what the predicate in this means, viz.: He respects his parents. To state this in another form: the adjective and the preposition express the verbal idea which would be expressed by the verb respects. Other examples are: he is eager for glory, he is ambitious of honor, he is greedy of wealth.
- 4. The same principle may be extended to some nouns even. For example: in my respect for you is great, my respect for you implies that I respect you; that is, the noun involves a verbal idea, and by the help of a preposition takes after it a word which denotes the object of respect; for you, then, is clearly an indirect objective element, complementary to the noun respect.
- 5. The principle may be extended one step further, and is applicable to the complement of the neuter or substantive verb to be. For example: in this is nothing to me, this is nothing is the proposition, and to me is logically and most naturally a complement of the copula is; that is, this being nothing is limited by, or directed to, me, as the person to whom the statement is applicable. To me, then, is clearly an indirect objective element after—that is, dependent on—the verb is.
- 6. To sum up: the indirect object may be the complement (a) of a transitive verb in the active voice; (b) of a transitive verb in the passive voice; (c) of an intransitive verb; (d) of the neuter verb; (e) of adjectives denoting active qualities; (f) of nouns involving a verbal idea.

QUESTIONS.

1. What complement may a verb in the passive voice take? Illustrate by an example. 2. Of what else may this element be the complement? Give examples. 3. Explain how an indirect object may follow an adjective. What kind of adjectives may it follow? Give examples. 4. To what is this principle further extended? 5. Show, by an example, how it may be still further extended. 6. Give all the applications of the indirect object.

PRACTICE.

Analyze, as before, the sentences which follow, carefully noting to what the indirect objects are joined, and whether the phrases which look like such are really such.

SENTENCES.

1. Similar things happened to others. 2. Such play is destructive to shoes. 3. A new world was opened to him. 4. His anxiety for his friend was untiring. 5. The old man was never generous for nothing. 6. Some of the men were assigned to household work. 7. No element was wanting in them for great achievements. 8. Be careful for nothing. 9. To me this is a new idea. 10. His love for his country overcame all temptations. 11. In justice to you I cannot do it. 12. The plan seemed to Washington full of danger. 13. This must be a final answer for all. 14. The fact is obvious to any observer. 15. He grew weary of the world. 16. To his promise just, Vich Alpine has discharged his trust. The assembled Indians, with great reverence for their deity, pretended great contentment at this assurance. 18. The scene is familiar to many a tourist. 19. The king, still obsequious to Spain, looked on him coldly. 20. Tears are the tributes of kind hearts to misfortune. 21. In esteeming the benefaction, we are grateful to the benefactor.

LESSON XXII.

THE OBJECTIVE ELEMENT.

INDIRECT OBJECTS, CONTINUED.

- 1. Indirect objects and some kinds of adverbial elements approach each other in office so closely that it is sometimes difficult to distinguish them.
- 2. The adverbial relations which come nearest to indirect objects are those, (1) of purpose and motive, and (2) place and person.
- 3. For example: in he did an errand for me, for me is plainly an indirect object; in he did it for fun, is the doing directed to fun as its object, or is fun the purpose of the act? in other words, is fun the beginning or the end of the act? It seems more nearly the latter. How is it in this? He did it for mischief, or he did it from malice.
- (2) For example: in he hastened to his room, to his room would generally be understood to denote the place to which he hastened, and so is adverbial; in, he hastened to his friend with the news, to his friend seems more nearly objective. How is it in this sentence? He carried the book to school for his brother, for fear he might need it.
- 4. No formal rule by which to distinguish these elements, can be given. The inquiry should be whether the words denote more nearly some distinct adverbial relation, or that to which the action or state expressed by the verb tends; in other words, whether they denote that on which an action terminates, or the cause, time, place, manner, etc., of the act. With any statement of the difference possible to be

made, some instances will still be on the dividing line between the two.

5. It is a useful exercise to discriminate, to a limited degree, between these elements which shade into each other. It should not lead, however, to useless disputes about the names of grammatical elements, but only to a very careful discrimination of the grammatical offices of certain combinations. The latter is a useful exercise—if any exercise in grammar is—while the former would often be only a waste of time.

QUESTIONS.

1. What elements are difficult to distinguish? 2. What relations are so in particular? 3. Give examples of each, and explain them. 4. How can they be distinguished from each other? 5. Is it useful to make these distinctions? What is the main point about them to be considered?

PRACTICE.

Analyze the following sentences, paying special attention to the distinction between indirect objectives and adverbial elements. If all in the class do not agree in reference to any such element after careful inquiry, it will only show that all do not get the same idea from a group of words, and this difference of view will be, in no wise, to be regretted, unless it leads to mere quarrels about names.

SENTENCES.

The master thanked him for the present.
 He crept up stairs to his room.
 Give to the winds thy fears.
 The speaker roused himself to the greatness of the occasion.
 He gazed on this intently for a few moments.
 The two princes went to the place of meeting.
 He asked this of me for his father's sake.
 The medicine speedily

restored him to strength. 9. He instantly thought of his wonderful lamp. 10. I am glad of this for one thing at 11. The red-coats were accustomed to regular warfare. 12. A chief in great rage struck at him with a hatchet. 13. The commander invited him to a conference. 14. Some still stood firm for the French in all this uproar. ✓ 15. Others were furious against them. 16. The result was due to his good offices. 17. His memory was trained to an astonishing tenacity. 18. He could offer no excuse for his conduct. 19. He was never timid for the right. 20. I was -put to the grammar school at eight years of age. 21. Full well they laughed with counterfeited glee at all his jokes. 22. Her mode of life she pleasantly describes in a letter to a friend. 23. He was born of an ancient family. 24. He waited with impatience for the coming of the night. 25. To his heart the life-blood thrilled with sudden start. 26. Friendship had changed to aversion.

> 27. Nature, a mother kind alike to all, Still grants her bliss at labor's earnest call.

28. O once again to Freedom's call return the patriot Tell. 29. He enjoined on him the strictest secrecy. 30. The lieutenant with thirty men pushed for the fort-gate with all speed. 31. I write this for your private information. 32. Mr. Pope for himself had no such ambition. 33. I will do all for the love of country. 34. All this seems very hard to me. 35. This course will lead us all to speedy ruin. 36. Who had sent for this man? 37. This is a great event for the country. 38. After that, I will stick to my own business. 39. The last remark gave rise to much angry feeling. 40. He did this thoughtlessly, for no evil purpose.

LESSON XXIII.

THE OBJECTIVE ELEMENT.

OBJECTS OF KINDRED MEANING.

- 1. Many verbs take as their complement a word, or words, expressing the same idea which they express. These are generally called *objects of kindred signification*.
- 2. Some of these verbs can take only the one word which is kindred to their own meaning and their form; as, to run a race, to live a life, to die a death.
- 3. Sometimes the word of kindred meaning has a different form from that of the verb; as to swear an oath, to hear a sound, to say a word, to play a game, to do an act.
- 4. Others of these verbs take after them the general word of kindred meaning, or some particular specification of the same idea; as, to sing a song, or hymn, psalm, tune, glee, carol, etc.; to see a sight, or some particular object of sight, to hear a sound, or some particular object of sound; to do a deed, or some particular act; to speak a word, or some specified word, or words.
- 5. Others of these verbs take after them a clause, identifying or explaining the word of kindred meaning, which may or may not be expressed; as, I dreamed a dream; or I dreamed that I saw, etc. I thought [this thought, namely] that you are mistaken; I wish [this wish, namely] that you would go.
- 6. Others still take all these three forms of complements, as, I have said my say, I said not a word, I said that I would go.

7. Some of these verbs may take other objects besides those of kindred signification; as, to tell a tale, or to tell the truth; to do a deed, or to do a favor.

QUESTIONS.

1. What complement do many verbs take? 2. What one form only can some of these take? 3. What is said about others? 4 What do still others take? 5. Give another specification of this kind of object, with illustrations. 6. Give examples of all three forms after the same verb. 7. Give examples of verbs taking these objects with others. Find all the illustrations of this kind of object you can.

PRACTICE.

Analyze the sentences which follow, with particular reference, when written out, to all the points given above, which may be brought out and extended by questions.

NOTE.—It is not thought desirable to introduce further numerals, or other marks, to distinguish different kinds of modifiers in simple sentences. The teacher can use additional ones, if he desires; but the aim is to keep these written analyses as near as possible to the form of the sentences as found, while the analysis is yet presented to the eye, without the confusion of too many details and too many marks of notation.

NOTE.—Sentences with subordinate clauses are used, in order to present all forms of these objects at once. They may be written now as objects, or parts of objects; without further disposal.

SENTENCES.

1. Let me die the death of the righteous. 2. I dreamed a dream, which was not all a dream. 3. We have already said that Rome became the center of European history. 4. Death grinned horribly a ghastly smile. 5. Instantly the chief yelled his war-cry. 6. Pray that prayer again. 7. He solemnly vowed this vow, that he would make a pilgrimage

to Jerusalem. 8. He swore a great oath by the dead at Marathon. 9. The mother told a pitiful tale of privation. 10. Next, all in concert danced the war-dance. 11. Fight the good fight of faith. 12. Sing the songs that to me were so dear. 13. The great artist painted a picture of the resurrection. 14. The wind blew a great gale. 15. The adventurers looked their last [look] on the scene of their exploits. 16. Soon after the pious missionary breathed his last [breath]. 17. And I will command the clouds that they rain no rain upon it. 18. You have learned the lesson well. 19. All were eagerly playing a game of ball. 20. His reply was, "digest me no digestions." 21. The mother could not sew a stitch. 22. He tied a hard knot in the rope. 23. He had done a deed of untold horror. 24. No one of the chiefs would run this race with him. 25. All men should live the life of the righteous.

LESSON XXIV.

THE OBJECTIVE ELEMENT.

Some Additional Objects.

- 1. Some verbs take after them a reflexive object; that is, the object, represented by a pronoun, is the same person or thing as the subject; as, He struck himself.
- 2. This object may be either direct or indirect; and it may be the only complement of the verb, or may be accompanied by some other complement, objective or adverbial; as, he congratulated himself on his success; he acknowledged to himself that he had been deceived; he accused himself of no crime.

- 3. Some simple verbs, and other words, are followed by a preposition so closely related to the idea expressed by them, that it is better to take the two together as the sign of one idea, than to separate them into an idea-word and a relation-word. For example: in, I shudder at the thought, I wonder at your folly, at hardly expresses a relation between the noun and the verb; it is rather part of the verbal idea, which thus becomes transitive with the following noun as the direct object. So in, This amounts to nothing, to relieve of difficulties, I call on you to answer, and others.
- 4. Some other words, also, are fairly to be considered as integral parts of the verbs to which they are joined. For example: in, fear took hold of them, took-hold-of expresses but one idea, that of seizing or possessing, and it seems a very mechanical analysis to insist that hold shall be made the object of the transitive verb took, and that of is a preposition showing the relation (what relation is it?) between them and hold. So give up is equivalent to surrender, came near to approached, etc.
- 5. Some verbs compounded of a simple verb—or what is a simple verb in the Latin or other language from which they come—and a preposition, repeat the preposition, in English form, after the verb. For example: adhere to, depend upon, sympathy with, embarked in or on, etc. In many such instances, the English preposition, being merely a repetition of the one included within the verb, may better be joined with that verb, making the verb transitive.
- 6. But this principle of compounding words which are separate in the text must not be applied at random, to avoid difficulties in the analysis. Grammar must account for each distinct idea, and must not save labor or thought by taking words in arbitrary groups. The test to be applied is this: is

a given word more nearly an inseparable part of the antecedent term on which it depends, or has it, in this connection, some significance or use apart from that term? For example: *Much depends on your own efforts*; is on really involved in the verb, or does it show a distinct and definite relation between the idea following and the verb?

QUESTIONS.

1. What are reflexive objects? 2. Are they direct or indirect? May other elements accompany them? Give examples. 3. What is to be done sometimes with the preposition following a verb? Give examples. 4. Give illustrations of other applications of the same principle. 5. What may be done with a preposition following a verb which is compounded with the same? 6. How must this be applied? What is the test? Illustrate by examples.

PRACTICE.

Analyze the sentences which follow, paying special attention, by means of questions, to the points discussed above.

SENTENCES.

1. I enjoyed myself with my friends. 2. I submitted myself to the will of God. 3. I arrived at the city of Pekin. 4. We were made aware of the fate in store for us. 5. The rest broke into laughter. 6. The woman warmed herself at the fire. 7. At last we came to ourselves. 8. We soon got out of the reach of the giants. 9. I found him absorbed in sorrow. 10. We put to sea and arrived at Bagdad. 11. He disposed of all in this way. 12. We said our prayers to ourselves. 13. We made this promise to each other. 14. He muttered to himself, A lie! a lie! 15. The slave crossed himself in token of his Christianity. 16. Affairs at length had come to this pass. 17. The chief had come to the great age of ninety years. 18. The soldiers

gradually accustomed themselves to this mode of warfare.

19. He surrendered himself to the enemy with great chagrin.

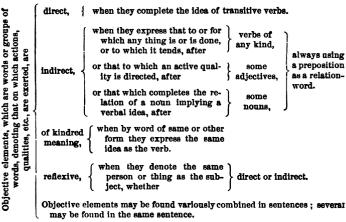
20. We made for the land with all speed. 21. A new danger now presented itself to his mind. 22. He looked at the man with great earnestness. 23. That question certainly answers itself. 24. My course will depend on all these circumstances.

25. He greatly blamed himself for such a result.

LESSON XXV.

RECAPITULATION OF OBJECTIVE ELEMENTS.

- 1. It is thus apparent that objective elements are very various in form and in office, and that much knowledge of the structure of sentences may be acquired from a careful study of their functions. It will be remembered that the topic is not yet completed, as objective infinitives and objective clauses are yet to be considered.
 - 2. Synopsis of Objective Elements:



QUESTIONS.

1. What is said about objective elements? What kinds are yet to be considered? 2. Write a synopsis of objective elements. Find three examples of each kind in the Reader, or other book.

LESSON XXVI.

GENERAL REVIEW FROM LESSON XVI.

1. What ranks have elements? 2. Define each and distinguish between them. 3. Which elements are principal and which subordinate? 4. What is the relation of the basis of an element to the entire element? 5. When is an element subordinate in the second degree? 6. What is the rank of the proposition? 7. How are elements divided as to structure? 8. Define each. 9. Illustrate by examples how elements are made complex. 10. What kind of ideas do complex elements represent? 11. Give a synopsis of elements as to rank. 12. The same as to structure. 18. Find ten complex elements of any kind, and name each. 14. What is the adjective element? 15. Where may it be found? 16. Of what may it be composed? 17. What does it denote? 18. Find ten adjective elements, and tell whether each is simple or complex. 19. Translate this analysis:

 $\frac{\text{His}^1}{\text{merry}^1}$ song is full { of pleasant memories.²

20. What is an adverbial element? 21. To what may it be joined? 22. Make, or find, an example of any adverbial element joined to each of these. 23. What may be its basis? 24. What does it express? 25. Write a sentence containing three adverbial elements, one of which is a phrase. 26. What is an objective element? 27. What is a direct objective element? 28. What do transitive verbs express? 29. Define a transitive verb. 30. Find ten direct objective elements, half of them to be complex, and some of them, if possible,

to be phrases. 31. What is an indirect object? 32. To what may it be joined? 33. Find an example of each. 34. Write or find a sentence containing three objects, at least one of them being indirect. 35. Write or find five sentences containing an adjective followed by an indirect object. 36. The same of nouns followed by an indirect object. 37. With what may some indirect objects be confounded? 38. Give some illustrations. 39. How can they be distinguished? 40. What is an object of kindred meaning? 41. What are the kinds? 42. Write, or find out of this book, five illustrations of them. 43. What is a reflexive object? 44. How may some prepositions following verbs be treated? 45. When may this principle be applied? 46. Write, or find out of this book, two sentences containing two complex adjective phrases. 47. The same with two complex objective elements of any kind. 48. The same, with two adverbial word-elements. 49. The same, with a complex adjective and a complex adverbial phrase. 50. The same, with all three elements now considered, each being a phrase and complex.

PRACTICE.

Write out the analysis and parsing of the following sentences—as far as the teacher directs—and parse in full the words in italics.

SENTENCES.

- 1. On their way down the river, between walls of verdure bright in the autumnal sun, they saw forests full of grape-vines.
- 2. Gurth, the son of Beowulph, is the born thrall of Cedric of Rotherwood.
- 3. The dingy walls of the rude sea-front gradually faded from sight.
 - 4. Their love for the church was not the effect of study.
 - 5. His soldiership was not justly a subject of derision.
- 6. For the basis of descriptive passages the author is indebted to early tastes.

- 7. The indignation of the members of the convention was proportionate to the greatness of the offence.
 - 8. Sweet was the sound of village bells at evening's close.
 - 9. Truth from his lips prevailed with double sway.
- 10. In America the regard for Irving was a national sentiment.
 - 11. Thus mused I on that morn in May.
 - 12. Maud Muller, on a summer's day, Raked the meadows, sweet with hay.
 - 13. Then homeward all take off their several ways.
 - 14. They tune their hearts, by far the noblest aim.
- 15. To you I sing, in simple Scottish lays, The lowly train in life's sequestered scene.
- 16. Then suddenly would come a dream of a far different character—a tumultuous dream, full of music.
 - 17. Still less do I put forth any pretensions of my own.
- 18. The late foes rode side by side, without an angry look, to the little cluster of palm-trees near the spring.
 - 19. Time unrevoked has run his wonted course.
- 20. The venerable age of this great man will not allow a word of censure on my part.

LESSON XXVII.

THE INFINITIVE MODE OF THE VERB AS A GRAM-MATICAL ELEMENT.

THE Infinitive mode has so far been excluded from the sentences used for practice, that the work of analysis might be fairly started, without this troublesome member. If the student will examine any piece of writing of even half a

page in length, he will find that this is a very common element, occurring in the simplest as well as in the most complex sentences. It would be a good exercise to make out from any piece of writing a list of elements and structures not yet accounted for.

It is now time to introduce the INFINITIVE PHRASE, that the view of Adjective, Adverbial and Objective Elements may be completed.

- 1. The Infinitive mode is always verbal in its nature, but its uses are very various.
- 2. The Infinitive mode of any verb expresses what other modes of the same verb express, but in an unlimited and general manner, and not as a declaration, or command, or a supposition. This mode makes no assertion, it is always dependent, and is rather the *name* of the action, etc., than any affirmation of action.
- 3. The Infinitive mode is accompained by the prefix to. Whatever this word may have been in the Saxon language, in English it is an inseparable prefix; it is not a preposition, but a mode-sign or handle.

NOTE.—Grammarians do not agree on the function of the word to; some, as Gould Brown, regard it as a preposition, and the verbal word which follows as its object. The argument for this view of it is based on its use in the Saxon language, from which it comes to us. Others, as Professor Greene and Professor Whitney, regard it as being now a mere prefix, or mode sign. The latter says, Essentials of Grammar, p. 212: "The root-infinitive usually has before it the preposition to, which is called its sign, and is to be considered and described as part of it. In the oldest English this preposition was only used with the infinitive, when it had a real prepositional value. * * * But we add it now to the infinitive in a mechanical way, as if it were a mere grammatical device for pointing out that the following word is an infinitive."

- 4. As the infinitive mode expresses action, etc., there must be a *doer* of the act, etc.; that is, the infinitive verb, when it is used as a verb, has a subject expressed or understood. When it is used in other offices it appears abstractly, or without reference to any subject.
- 5. The subject of the infinitive mode is not expressed when it is the same as the subject of the principal verb on which it depends. For example: in *I wish to go*, *I* do the wishing and *I* am to do the going; there is but one subject expressed. To express both subjects, the nearest equivalent sentence would be, *I* wish that *I* may go. The same is true when this mode is used independently to introduce a sentence; for example, to confess the truth, *I was wrong*, which is equivalent to That I may, or If I should confess, etc.
- 6. When the subject of the infinitive mode is expressed, it is in the objective case. This is evident from examples in which the form of the subject shows the case; as in He wished me to go. Who wished? He. Who is to go? me. Here are two actions—wishing and going—two subjects, one in the nominative and one in the objective case. There are not, however, two assertions. Other examples containing pronouns, are, He wished him to go, her to go, etc.

The same is true in examples in which the form of the word does not show the case of the subject. For example: in at first they thought the crier (to be) mad, He never knew that noise to cease, crier and noise are as plainly objective as the pronouns in the preceding sentences.

This usage is analogous with that of other languages.

NOTE.—Objective-subjects are a stumbling-block to many students. The reason is obvious. The rule, "The subject of a finite verb is in the nominative case," is repeated and applied till it carries with it the

impression that every subject is in the nominative case. But the rule itself leads the student to expect another rule for verbs not finite. Besides, when infinitives are reached in analysis and parsing they are very often not thoroughly studied, and the point escapes the student again.

The uses of the infinitive mode without a subject are considered in Lesson XXIX.

7. The infinitive mode with its subject makes another form of objective element.

Consider again the sentence, he never knew that noise to cease. What is the object of the verb knew? What did he know? These questions cannot be answered by the words, to cease, or that noise. The least that will rightly answer the question is the entire group following the verb, viz., that noise to cease. If the sentence is changed to this form, he never knew the cessation of that noise—which is not exactly equivalent—this may seem plainer. So in, he wished him to go, him to go is the simplest answer to the question, what did he wish? in, they thought the crier (to be) mad, the crier (to be) mad is the simplest answer to the question, what did they think?

8. It must be carefully noted wherein this objective element differs from those already considered. The difference is not that the objects have two parts—many verbs have two or more objects—but that (1) the two parts have direct relation to each other; and that (2) the two together make one object. On the other hand, a direct and an indirect object are separately connected with their verb. For example: in the first sentence above, to cease and noise are related as verb and subject, or as action and that which acts, and the two together are the object of the verb knew. In, He lent the book to me, book and me are each added to the verb lent,

but they have no direct grammatical relation with each other.

- 9. The verb in the infinitive mode with its objectivesubjective may conveniently be called a double object. The student must note that this is a different thing from two objects. The subject may be modified in any way which its nature admits, and the verb may take any modifications of a verb of its sort. In case of such modifications the element is, of course, complex.
- 10. The verb of the double object may be attributive; or it may be the copula or a copulative verb, followed by an attribute of the subject, as, I knew him to be *good*, or I knew him to be a *scholar*. In the latter instance, of course, the attribute is in the objective case, as the subject is.
- 11. The two points which will at first puzzle the student not familiar with this manner of disposing of such elements are the objective-subject, and the combination of two related parts to make one element. Practice with sentences will make the student "see these points."
- 12. The infinitive mode with its subject is used in double-objects only, but these objects may follow prepositions as well as verbs; as, For you to do this is a wonder indeed. He sent for me to come.

QUESTIONS.

INTRODUCTION. Why has the infinitive mode been excluded so far? What exercise is now recommended? 1. What is the nature of the infinitive mode? its uses? 2. What does it express? How does it express this? 3. By what is it accompanied? What is this word? Note. What opinions do grammarians hold about this? Give Professor Whitney's statement. 4. When has this form of the verb a subject? 5. When is the subject not expressed? Illustrate by examples. 6. In what case is the subject when expressed? Illustrate

trate by examples. Note. Why are these subjects stumbling-blocks to students? 7. What does the infinitive with its subject make? Explain in full by the examples given. Find others of the same sort. 8. How do these objects differ from two or more objects joined to the same verb? Show this by examples. 9. What are these objects called? How may the parts be modified? 10. What may the verb in such combinations be? 11. What two points may perplex the student? 12. What may these double objects follow? Has the infinitive mode with its subject any other use? Verify this by search among all the infinitives you can find in books.

PRACTICE.

Select, without formal analysis, the double objects in the following sentences, explain the relation of the parts of each, and find, outside of this book, at least ten other illustrations of this element.

SENTENCES.

1. He found it to be a palace. 2. The chief made us sit down on the ground. 3. The noise made Aladdin turn his head that way. 4. At first they thought the crew mad. 5. The witness made the point clear to all. 6. The prince thought himself the most happy of men. 7. He believed me to be dead. 8. The Puritans held it to be a duty to labor. 9. They compelled him to hold a candle. 10. I had heard mariners speak of this miraculous bird. 11. He made it a custom to spend much time here. 12. Her father ordered her to be called. 13. The sultan bade him take any ground he pleased. 14. He bids the frosts retire. 15. The king angrily declared him to be a traitor. 16. The general desired me to repeat my story. 17. For this I invited you to come to Cesarea. 18. No man can believe him to be such a villain. 19. I supposed myself led to an interview with some poet. 20. I never saw men eat so much.

LESSON XXVIII.

OBJECTIVE COMPLEMENTS COMPLETED.

Two other forms of objective complements, or elements, remain to be noticed, that all varieties of this modifier may be presented.

- 1. Some verbs are followed by an object and an attribute of that object; as, The teacher appointed HIM MONITOR. In this sentence him seems to be a direct object of the verb; monitor is not in apposition with him, and yet some relation between the two exists. The sentence means, that by the teacher's appointment he became monitor. If the verb in the infinitive mode is supplied, as some prefer, and the sentence reads, The teacher appointed him to be monitor, the whole expression, him to be monitor, does not seem to be the simplest object of the verb as in the sentences given in Lesson XXVII. It seems best, therefore, to say that this is another form of double object, consisting of a direct object with an attribute of it.
- 2. Sometimes the word as is used between the object and the attribute; e. g., The teacher appointed him as monitor. The meaning, of course, is the same as before, but there is an additional word to dispose of. As the sentence stands, as must be considered to be simply a connective between the two; the term monitor remains an attribute of the direct object. The word as is unnecessary to the sense as the infinitive to be is. The word for is sometimes used in the same way.
 - 3. The verbs which take this kind of object are particu-

larly those of naming, calling, appointing, esteeming, constituting, and the like. When the verb is in the passive voice the attributive object remains after the verb; as, They named him John; in this, him is the direct object of the verb, and John the attributive object. In the passive form the sentence is, he was named John by them, in which John remains after the verb, but the case of the word to which it is joined being changed, the case of John is changed to correspond. As some grammarians express it, the attribute is attracted into the case of the word to which it is joined. Some, however, will prefer to say that such words remain as objects after the verb in the passive voice.

- 4. It is to be noticed about this kind of object that (1) both parts may be personal words, as in the sentence above; (2) the first may be a personal word and the second one denoting office, characteristic, etc.; as, they chose him president; (3) they may both be words denoting things, as, he called an untruth of every sort a lie.
- 5. Some verbs are followed by two objects, each of which seems equally direct; as, I teach you grammar, I ask you a question. These seem to be confined to the two verbs teach and ask; others seem to take objects more clearly, though in varying degrees, direct and indirect; as, I give (to) you permission. It is to be noticed that one of these objects denotes a person, and the other a thing.
- 6. The other form is this. Some words require something after them to complete their meaning, which cannot be called, in any strict sense, an objective element, but which come nearer to this than to any other commonly recognized element. Such are found in these sentences: I happened to find, etc.; I chanced to come; it appears to be true; it seems to be a mistake, etc.

It seems necessary to take these phrases with the preceding word in order to express any complete idea; it is very difficult—to the author, impossible—to tell what their modifying effect is. They may be disposed of in the analysis by considering them as *verbal completions* of the preceding idea, and connecting them by a hyphen with the preceding word.

- 7. The synopsis of objective elements must be completed by adding these: (a) two forms of double object; (1) that composed of a verb in the infinitive mode with its objective-subject, with or without added words; (2) a direct object followed by an attribute denoting character, office, etc.; (b) two direct objects after the same verb; (c) phrases after certain words, which may be called phrases of verbal completion.
- 8. This is to be noticed in reference to double objects: they are composed of an objective word-noun or pronoun—noun or pronoun—followed by (a) a verb of action, (b) a copula or copulative verb with adjective, noun, etc., (c) an attribute joined to the object with or without a word between them. They differ, then, from propositions in only expressing what these formally assert. In all future analyses, give the composition of double objects.

QUESTIONS.

1. By what are some verbs followed? Illustrate by examples. How may these objects be described? 2. What auxiliary words are sometimes used? 3. Mention the verbs specially used with such objects? What becomes of the second object in the passive voice? What two ways of disposing of them? 4. What varieties are to be noticed? 5. What objects do the verbs teach and ask take? 6. What other form of objective complement? Give examples. Find others, if you can. What may they be called? 7. Complete the synopsis of objective elements. 8. How do double objects differ from, and how resemble, propositions?

PRACTICE.

Select, as in the preceding lesson, the elements of which this lesson treats, change the voice of the verb when the sentence admits such change, and parse all the attributive objects. Here again new symbols are required, if these objects are to be specified in the written analysis. If thought best, indicate all double objects by the numeral 5.

SENTENCES.

1. The next morning found him a well man. 2. Congress appointed Washington commander-in-chief. 3. The Indians despised white men as base poltroons. 4. He next called the speaker a villain. 5. The boys all desired him for their leader. 6. The general was ridiculed by the troops as a coward. 7. They named the place Saint Joseph. 8. We were obliged to cast anchor. 9. He was ordered by the governor to proceed with all speed. 10. These people were doomed to become a thorn to New England. 11. Some chanced to come before the rest. 12. He happened to be mistaken. 13. The bird seemed to be aware of his foolish behavior. 14. He was not accustomed to live in this hard way. 15. They used to come frequently. 16. I ask you this plain question. 17. The haughty Briton refused to recognize any provincial officer as his superior. 18. You have taught me language. 19. I will never call her daughter more. 20. The great count always considered the Hurons as his friends. 21. I regard him as entirely competent. 22. The general took him for a spy. 23. All the school esteemed him as a wise and faithful teacher. 24. Choose me for your captain. 25. They all agreed to acknowledge him as their king.

LESSON XXIX.

THE INFINITIVE MODE WITHOUT A SUBJECT.

- 1. THE infinitive mode without a subject expresses action, etc., with no reference to any particular actor, and is used in various offices in sentences. In all these offices, however, it retains its verbal idea, and may receive any additions or modifications of the verb in other modes.
- 2. It may, as a noun, be the subject-nominative, predicate-nominative, object of a verb, or, in some cases, of a preposition; as, to sing is pleasant, and to see the sun is pleasant; to hear is to obey, this is to deceive; we wish to go, we desire to live long and happy lives; what went ye out for to see?

As predicate-nominative, it denotes, for the most part, identity with the subject.

- 3. It may be used, as an adjective modifier, to denote various modifications of the noun; some of these approach very closely to indirect objects; as, time to come is called future; a desire to succeed influences all; aptness to learn is a good quality.
- 4. The infinitive verb in the passive voice is used in two ways: (1) adjectively; as, his conduct is to be despised, which is equivalent to, his conduct is despicable: (2) to denote what is necessary, determined upon, or futurity; as, this is to be considered, it is to be settled soon.
- 5. It may be used, again, to denote purpose, and some other adverbial relations; as, he went to visit friends, he did his best to succeed. Sometimes the phrase in order is used

between the verb and the word on which it depends; as this was done in order to prevent confusion.

6. It may also be used as the leading term in a collection of words introducing a sentence not grammatically independent; as, to confess the truth, I was wrong. These will be more fully explained in Lesson LVI.

Other uses of this phrase are difficult of classification.

7. Synopsis of the uses of the infinitive phrase.

The Infinitive Phrase is used,

without its object, tive subject, without its object of verb or preposition.

as a noun in various relations, as an adjective, as an adverb, in introductory phrases, in other ways, without out added elements.

QUESTIONS.

1. How does the infinitive mode without a subject express action? How is it used? What does it retain in all uses? 2. Give its uses as a noun, with examples. As predicate-nominative, what does it denote? 3. Give its uses as an adjective, with examples. 4. How is it used in the passive voice? 5. Give its use as an adverb, with examples. What phrase sometimes accompanies it in this use? 6. What other use? 7. Give a synopsis of the uses of the infinitive mode.

PRACTICE.

Explain, with great care, all the infinitive phrases in the following sentences, and parse each one, taking the sign to as part of it.

SENTENCES.

1. I went to see him immediately. 2. The neighbors came to assist at the funeral. 3. I always took great care to save my money. 4. To doubt would be ingratitude. 5. This

gave me an opportunity to escape. 6. The question is to be settled on its merits. 7. We stopped on the way to rest. 8. There is a time to laugh. 9. Another tried to escape by the door. 10. An invitation to join them was refused. 11. Frontenac asked the chief to join them. 12. He was to do so by gathering them into the church. 13. Who is there left to mourn for Logan? 14. She crept forth at night to seek for food. 15. He had patience to hear my story. 16. He had the good fortune to find a hatchet. 17. In their zeal to cultivate the higher nature they forgot the lower. 18. I sat down upon the grass to recover my breath. 19. This bait failed to tempt him. 20. The company was to receive a thousand pounds.

LESSON XXX.

GENERAL PRACTICE IN ANALYZING SENTENCES CONTAINING INFINITIVE PHRASES, OBJECTS WITH ATTRIBUTES, AND PHRASES OF VERBAL COMPLETION.

ANALYZE the following sentences according to the models given, paying special attention to the elements mentioned, and parsing italicized words and phrases.

NOTE. The distinction between the two forms of double objects—the infinitive with its subject and the object with an attribute joined directly with it—is often a very nice one, and the habit of accurate discrimination it will cultivate will repay the labor, even if it does not result in entire agreement in a class of students. A useful question in doubtful cases is this: does the first part of the object seem to denote its principal idea, or does the second part?

These additional objective elements may be simply indicated as objective in the written form of analysis; the numeral 5 marking all varieties of double objects. Additional particulars may be indicated in the written short parsing. For example:

SENTENCE. I thought him to be wrong in every particular.

ANALYSIS:

I thought { him to be wrong⁵ { in every particular.²

Parsing, by groups of words:

- 1. I thought, proposition.
- 2. him to be wrong, double object—person and quality—of 2.
- 3. in every particular, adverbial phrase, modifying wrong in 2.

Double object parsed:

- 1. him, pronoun, objective subject of 2.
- 2. to be, infinitive verb, with him as subject.
- 3. wrong, adjective, attribute of 1.

Or, each word may be written out in order, as heretofore.

SENTENCES.

1. I desired him to let me go. 2. May I be there to see.

3. He reckoned the distance to be fifty miles. 4. He bound himself by a vow to remain in Canada. 5. They sent for him to join them in council. 6. The Indians had long ceased to exist. 7. He ordered his men to fire. 8. They told us to help ourselves. 9. The statement was at once seen to be untrue. 10. The king had to send soldiers to save them from destruction. 11. I was overjoyed to hear my own language. 12. What have we to do with thee? 13. The blind man was to hear for the deaf man. 14. Little Two Eyes had to go out to look after the goat. 15. They have

nothing to eat. 16. After my first voyage, I was destined to spend the rest of my days at Bagdad. 17. The sun was about to set. 18. I was ready to die with grief. 19. What could that favor be, except to increase his treasure? 20. It was not worth while to vex himself about a trifle. have seen a legion of boys scamper over our grass-plot under the chestnut trees. 22. He made every possible remonstrance to the king not to expose him to such a law. 23. He was appointed as second in command. 24. It is always honest to speak the truth. 25. I consider him the best speaker in the house. 26. Madame Roland heard herself condemned to death with perfect composure. 27. Do you consider me worthy to share the fate of the good? 28. We resolved to have ourselves painted too. 29. First count all men of equal caste, then count thyself the least and last. 30. What have you here to eat?

LESSON XXXI.

CONNECTIVES: THEIR KINDS AND GENERAL DIVISIONS.

In order to prepare the way for elements not yet presented, a preliminary lesson on Connectives is necessary.

- 1. Any word whose office, wholly or in part, is to join other words or elements, is a connective in the most general sense.
- 2. The copula, in all its forms, is a link between the subject and the attribute of α sentence; but this word asserts such connection, its verbal force not being lost in its connect-

ing office; it is not, therefore, classed as a connective, but as a verb.

- 3. Prepositions connect by showing relation of ideas. They have been considered already.
- 4. Connectives, generally so called, are of two classes; pure, and impure or mixed.
- 5. The distinction between them is this: the first connect parts which are grammatically equal but form no part of the material of such elements; the second connect parts which are grammatically unequal and also form part of the material of one of these two parts. In other words, the first connect only, and the second connect and do some other office besides. For example: in, you have a book and I want it, the two propositions are connected by and; this word, however, forms no part of the material of either proposition; it simply stands between them as a link to make them into one sentence. In, you have a book which I want, it is seen at once that which takes the place of and and it in the preceding sentence; which stands between the propositions making them one sentence as before, and it is a constituent part of one, being the object of the verb want.
- 6. Because some connectives perform two offices they are called impure conjunctions; that is, they are not purely connective in their office. Those which connect only are pure conjunctions.
- 7. Pure conjunctions are also called coördinate, because they connect parts of the same rank; that is, they connect two sentences, two subjects, two adjectives, two objective elements, etc. The second are called subordinate because they always join a dependent element to that on which it depends.
 - 8. The pure conjunction is always a coördinate one, and

the impure is always a subordinate one and joins a dependent clause to its principal.

QUESTIONS.

1. Define connective, in its general sense. 2. How is the copula a connective? How is it classed? 3. How do prepositions connect? 4. What two general classes of connectives? 5. What is the distinction between them? Illustrate by examples. 6. Why are they called pure and impure? 7. What other names for the two classes? 8. What is the pure conjunction, always? What is the impure? What does the latter connect?

PRACTICE.

For practice in this lesson, select from the sentences in Lesson XXXIV all the connectives, read the sentences without them, and notice carefully what parts are necessarily dropped out if the connective is omitted.

LESSON XXXII.

PURE OR COÖRDINATE CONJUNCTIONS.

- 1. THE coördinate conjunctions are divided into three classes of one conjunction each, according to the nature of the connection they make; namely, the copulative and, the disjunctive but, and the alternative or, negative, nor.
- 2. The first of these denotes addition of equal parts; the second, opposition of equal parts; the third, a choice between equal parts.
- 3. There are no other pure conjunctions in the language; that is, there are no other words which connect, and do this

as their sole grammatical office. The words as and for come very near to being pure conjunctions, but these put their clauses into the relations of cause and of manner. The most common connective in the language is and.

- 4. With these are joined other words which assist and increase their connecting force by expressing some additional idea. With AND are joined also, too, mcreover, hence, etc.; with BUT, nevertheless, yet, notwithstanding, etc.; with OR, otherwise, else, etc.
- 5. These additional words are not themselves the proper connectives of the parts, but they modify the relation between the parts as expressed by the real connectives, and, but, or. They are for this reason properly called auxiliary connectives and cannot stand without their principals. They assist in connecting the same parts as the conjunctions with which they are associated.
- 6. Their modifying effect is various, and can be learned only from their use in sentences; in general, it is to refer the mind to what has gone before, and to indicate that the phrase or clause in which they stand is connected in thought with some part of it, or with the whole.
- 7. Sometimes the principal connective is not expressed, but this does not essentially change the office of these auxiliary words.

QUESTIONS.

1. What classes of coördinate conjunctions? What is the principle of classification? What are the conjunctions? 2. What does each denote? Give a sentence containing each, and explain the connection. 3. What other pure conjunctions? Which is the most common? 4. What are joined with these? 5. What is the office of these words? What are they called? What do they assist in connecting? 6. What is their modifying effect? 7. Is the principal conjunction always expressed?

PRACTICE.

Tell what each coördinate connective in the following connects, giving the entire parts connected and naming them; also, give the auxiliary connectives, and tell as definitely as possible what their force is. Parse the words and phrases in italics.

SENTENCES.

1. Tis true he was monarch and wore a crown, But his heart was beginning to sink.

MODEL. And connects the two predicates, was monarch, and wore a crown. But connects the two sentences, 'Tis * * crown and his * * * * sink.

- 2. Sing, or else leave the class. Or connects the two sentences; else assists in connecting them; its force here is, as an alternative: or, that is, if you do not sing, leave the class.
 - 3. He had tried and tried, but could not succeed, And so he became quite sad.
 - 4. Again it fell, and swung below, But up it quickly mounted.
 - 5. It is a hard task; nevertheless, it must be done.
- 6. James went, and Charles went too, but George staid at home.
- 7. The gift was offered but refused, yet no ill-will was apparent on either side.
- 8. It may cost treasure and blood; but it will stand, and it will amply compensate for both.
 - 9. And they must drink or die.
- 10. We must make the attempt, but we must also be prepared for failure.
 - 11. I did not say pride, but proud.

- 12. Here are two books; take one and leave the other; or, else, take both; but be sure to return them to me.
 - 13. He lived in want, sickness, and neglect.
 - 14. But, what shall be done?
 - 15. Be careful for nothing, but faithful in all things.
 - 16. But most by numbers judge a poet's song, And smooth or rough, with them, is right or wrong.
 - 17. This course is right, and, moreover, it is expedient.
 - 18. Make haste to strike; otherwise, the cause is lost.
 - 19. The pursuers, too, were close behind.
- 20. Run and tell the news to all, or else the opportunity will be lost.

LESSON XXXIII.

COMPOUND ELEMENTS.

- 1. COÖRDINATE conjunctions combine grammatical elements of all kinds into compound elements.
- 2. A compound element is composed of two or more similar elements joined together. Words, phrases, clauses and sentences may in this way be made compound. Only the first two are now considered.
- 3. The distinction between compound and complex elements should be carefully noted. The former are made of two or more similar elements, that is, two adjectives, two adverbial phrases, etc., each performing the same office in the sentence; each modifying the same word, but having no direct grammatical relation with each other. The latter consist of dissimilar parts joined into one whole. The dif-

ference is in the manner of union of the parts. This may be seen at once in the following: we study grammar and geography; we study Kerl's Grammar. In the first are two objects depending on the same verb, and joined into one compound object by the coördinate conjunction and; in the second is one object, made complex by the modifying word, Kerl's.

- 4. Compound elements may also become complex by the addition of modifiers; in this case it is necessary to describe them as compound and complex; for example: we study Kerl's Grammar and Smith's Geography.
- 5. Compound elements may be principal or subordinate: only the latter are considered at present.

NOTE.—Notice that the conjunction is no part of either element which it joins; it stands only as a link between them.

QUESTIONS.

1. What is the office of coördinate conjunctions? 2. Of what is a compound element composed? 3. What is the distinction between complex and compound elements? Illustrate by examples. 4. How may compound elements become complex? 5. What elements may be compound?

PRACTICE.

Analyze the following sentences according to the model given, writing the conjunctions, both principal and auxiliary, between the two parts which they join.

EXAMPLES. The rainbow is the fairest and most fairy-like thing in all the world.

The rainbow is the thing
$$\begin{cases} fairest^1 \\ and \\ most fairy-like,^1 \\ in all the world. \end{cases}$$

So now he began to think of pitching his tent and spending the night on the shore.

NOTE.—When more than two elements are joined, only one conjunction may be used, and generally between the last two; let such elements be written as they stand, that is, write the conjunction only when it is given in the sentence.

Elements modifying each part of a compound element may be written opposite both, with a brace, as on the shore above.

SENTENCES.

- 1. A crow, ready to die with thirst and eagerly desirous of finding water, spied a maid with a pitcher on her head.
- 2. Goldielocks had a black velvet coat, trousers of the same, and shoes of shining leather.
- 3. He did not say a word to his father or to any of his brothers about his plan.
- 4. On this particular morning, the breakfast consisted of hot cakes, some nice little brook trout, roasted potatoes, and coffee for King Midas.
- 5. The affair was conducted in a manner energetic enough, but not pleasing.
 - 6. He gazed long and earnestly upon the scene before him.
 - 7. He dreamed of his home, of his dear native bowers.
- 8. With great pain and difficulty I guided my raft to the shore.
- 9. I knew not what to do, nor where to go, nor how to rest my weary limbs.
- 10. Next morning Aladdin behaved with much reserve and great sadness.

- 11. The first dawn of comfort came to him in a determination to stand by that boy through thick and thin, and to help him, and cheer him, and bear his burdens, for his good deed of that night.
- 12. The snow had been heaping field and highway with a silence deep and white.
- 13. Stern and unmoved by all his misfortunes, he stood there.
 - 14. He was fond of books and music, too.
- 15. This is the perpetual work of thy creation, complete, old, but never faded.

LESSON XXXIV.

SUBORDINATE CONNECTIVES.

- 1. SUBORDINATE connectives join dependent clauses to some word on which the clause depends. They cannot, therefore, be used in simple sentences.
- 2. The essential difference between coordinate and subordinate connectives, is that the latter, besides their office as connectives, perform some office in their clause, and so are a part of that clause, while the former connect only. The sentence already given illustrates this; viz., You have the book which I want. Which is, plainly, the connective between the two propositions; as, if it is omitted, they are disjoined. It is also, plainly, the object of the verb want; as, if it is omitted, that verb has no object expressed. The double office appears more plainly by writing the sentence in these forms: (1) You have the book; I want the book.

- (2) You have the book and I want it. (3) You have the book which I want.
- 3. This form of connection between the two parts of the sentence makes the latter part grammatically dependent on the first.
- 4. Subordinate connectives are divided into three classes according to the office of the clauses in which they stand; viz., Substantive, Adjective and Adverbial.
- 5. Substantive clauses are those which perform the office of a noun; Adjective and Adverbial perform the office of the parts of speech of the same name. The clause names the connective, not the connective the clause.
- 6. Subordinate connectives are, in general, relative and interrogative pronouns and adverbs, and the pro-sentence that. The latter is treated in Lesson XL. The relative words are proper connectives, and they perform this office by referring their clause to an antecedent term. The others are not strictly connective, but interrogative, or substitutes, or merely introductory.
- 7. The number of these connectives is small, but the variety of relations into which they put their clauses is very great, and they will be best understood by taking them up in detail. They are all found in complex sentences, and the classification of sentences will naturally precede their analysis. For preliminary practice, that their nature and office may be understood, only those which present no special difficulty are given.

QUESTIONS.

1. What do subordinate connectives join? 2. What is the essential difference between these and coördinate connectives? Illustrate by examples. 3. Into what relation does this connection bring the parts of the sentence? 4 How are they divided into classes? 5. De-

fine the three kinds of clauses. Which names the other, the clause or the connective? 6. What words are used as subordinate connectives? Which of these are proper connectives? 7. What is said of the number of these connectives, and of the clauses in which they stand?

PRACTICE.

Select the subordinate connectives in the following sentences, tell what they connect, what office the clause performs, and what office in its clause the connective performs.

NOTE.—Be careful in this practice to give the entire clause when it is necessary to designate it.

Thorough work with this practice, which should be extended as far as may be needed, will very much assist in the analysis of complex sentences.

EXAMPLE. There could be no other such in a palace all whose utensils were silver or gold.

Whose connects its clause, viz., all whose * * * gold with palace; the clause is adjective in office; in its clause, whose is an adjective modifier of utensils.

SENTENCES.

- 1. The door which was opened by enchantment was now shut by the same means.
- 2. You ate up yesterday all the provisions that I had in the house.
 - 3. After the princess passed by, Aladdin went home.
 - 4. You must do as you please.
 - 5. We touched at several ports where we traded.
 - 6. The man succeeds best who tries most faithfully.
- 7. As the safety of the troop required this trick, the captain reluctantly consented.

- 8. Tell me whose is the fault.
- 9. I cannot tell you why this has been done.
- 10. Blessed is he that cometh in the name of the Lord.
- 11. You have never told us how it was all brought about.
- 12. You must go when the bell rings.
- 13. She repeated the answer which she had received to the prince.
- __14. As you journey, sweetly sing.
- 15. They took their leave with all the respect and thanks that could well pass between people, where, on either side they understood not one word which they could say, and came back to the first island, where, when they arrived, they set eight of their prisoners at liberty, after they had given them a great feast.
 - 16. On us through the unplastered wall,
 We felt the sifted snow-flakes fall;
 But sleep stole on, as sleep will do,
 When hearts are light and life is new.
 - 17. A week had passed,
 Since the great world was heard from last.
 - 18. So, when in darkness sleeps the vale,
 Where still the blind bird clings,
 The sunshine of the upper sky
 Shall glitter on thy wings!
- 19. It was the very witching-time of night that Ichabod pursued his travels homeward, along the sides of the hills which rise above Tarrytown, and which he had traversed in the afternoon.
 - I cannot feel that thou art far,
 Since near at need the angels are.

LESSON XXXV.

CLASSIFICATION OF SENTENCES.

THE way is now prepared to make a partial classification of sentences.

- 1. A sentence expresses a complete thought. This does not mean all that can be said about a subject, but such a statement, complete in itself, as a writer or speaker chooses to make.
- 2. The proposition is the basis of the sentence; the simplest possible sentence contains a proposition, and this defines a simple sentence as one which has but one proposition.
- 3. The proposition in any sentence may be modified or unmodified. Very few sentences are found containing only unmodified propositions, but the number of modifications does not affect the kind of sentence; this depends on what is essential to its structure, namely, the propositions.
- 4. The kind of sentence depends on (1) the number of propositions it contains, and (2) their relation to each other.
- 5. The sentence, life is short and art is long, contains two propositions and is, therefore, not simple; so, also, the sentence, that life is long which answers life's great end.
- 6. These sentences are alike in the number of their propositions, but they differ in two respects. (1) By the omission of the conjunction and, the first is made into two simple sentences with no change of meaning; the second cannot be so treated. The reason of this is the fact already stated, that the conjunction and forms no part of the material of the sentence, while the relative connective which does. (2)

Either part of the first sentence may be taken by itself; we may write life is short, or art is long, without the other; these are, therefore, grammatically independent and equal. Of the second sentence we can write, life is long, by itself, but not, which answers life's great end. These two parts, then, are grammatically unequal, one being dependent and the other independent.

- 7. The first sentence differs from the second, not in the number, but in the relation of its propositions. These are coördinate in the first, and principal and subordinate in the second.
- 8. Because the parts are combined in different ways, these sentences receive different names. Those which contain two, or more, independent propositions are COMPOUND sentences; those which contain a principal and a subordinate proposition, or more than one, are COMPLEX sentences.
- 9. The test to be applied is this: take each proposition with all that belongs to it, and ask whether it can be used by itself; if so, that part is independent; if all the propositions in a sentence can be so used, the sentence is compound; if any one cannot be so used, that one is dependent, or subordinate, and the sentence is complex.
- 10. Strictly, entire propositions must be compounded to make a sentence compound; doubling one of the parts makes that part compound, but not the sentence. Such sentences as James and Charles study, James studies and recites, James is good and diligent, are simple sentences with compound subject, etc., or they are partially compound; such sentences as life is short and art is long, are compound, because the entire proposition is compounded.
- 11. In structure, then, sentences are simple, partially compound, compound, and complex.

- (a) A simple sentence is one which contains but one proposition.
- (b) A partially compound sentence is one whose subject, copula, or attribute is compound.
- (c) A compound sentence is one which contains two or more entire propositions, independent of each other.
- (d) A complex sentence is one which contains one or more independent propositions and one or more subordinate propositions.
- 12. Compound and complex sentences have their parts joined by connectives either expressed or so clearly implied that it is not necessary to express them. A succession—three or more—of propositions may be joined in pairs, or the last two only may be joined; these are all considered to be united by the connectives which are expressed. Illustrations of the omission of connectives necessary in grammar are found in the following sentences:

Two, three and four make nine. I want the book you have. I went to the house, I rang the bell, I delivered my message and I came away instantly. Horse and foot, officer and private, regular and volunteer, were mingled in the confused retreat.

- 13. This is to be noticed about compound sentences; their constituent parts are sentences, and they can be broken up nto sentences by the simple omission of the connectives. Partially compound sentences may be made into simple or complex sentences by supplying the necessary parts; but they are to be named and analyzed as they stand.
- 14. It is very important to keep in mind that the classification of sentences is based on the propositions they contain; the added elements go for nothing in this matter.

The student must detect the propositions and the connective to determine what name to give to a sentence.

15. There are as many kinds of sentences as distinct sorts of relations among propositions shown by their various connectives. This topic will be completed in Lesson LXI, and a full synopsis will be given.

QUESTIONS.

1. What does a sentence express? Explain what is meant by this? 2. What is the basis of the sentence? What, then, is the simplest form of sentence? 8. How may propositions appear in any sentence? What alone affects the kind of sentence? 4. On what two things does the kind of sentence depend? 5. What does each of these two sentences given contain? 6. In what are these two sentences alike? In what do they differ first? In what do they differ second? 7. What is the relation of the proposition in each of them? 8. What are they named? 9. What test is to be applied to determine how propositions are related? 10. How do compound differ from partially compound sentences? Illustrate by examples. 11. How are sentences divided according to structure? Give examples of each. 12. How are the parts of complex and compound sentences connected? Give examples showing the omission of connectives. 13. What is to be noticed about compound sentences? What about partially compound ones? 14. What must the student look out for in determining to what class to assign a sentence? 15. How many kinds of sentences are these?

PRACTICE.

For this lesson sentences containing other elements besides propositions and connectives are given. Remember that the kind of sentence is not affected by any number of modifying elements.

Once again, look out for PROPOSITIONS only; the two ques-

tions to be asked are, how many statements does this sentence contain, and how are they related?

From the following sentences select and write the propositions with their connectives only, and from this skeleton determine the structure of each and name it.

EXAMPLE. The lesson in grammar which I assigned to the class this morning must be learned before all other lessons.

SKELETON. The lesson which I assigned must be learned: here are two propositions, connected by which; one can be taken by itself, the other cannot. The sentence, then, contains a principal and a subordinate proposition, and is complex.

SENTENCES.

- 1. Custom is the most certain mistress of language, as the public stamp makes the current money.
- 2. How is literature to avail itself of the new words which it needs for complete expression?
- 3. A prince whose character is thus marked by every act which may define a tyrant, is unfit to be the ruler of a free people.
 - 4. Who is he that every man in arms should wish to be?
 - 5. My heart smote me the moment he shut the door.
 - Then take me on your knee, mother,
 And listen, mother of mine;
 A hundred fairies danced last night,
 And the harpers, they were nine.
 - 7. Now this is all I heard, mother,
 And all that I did see;
 So, prithee, make my bed, mother,
 For I'm as tired as I can be.

- 8. America cannot be reconciled till the troops of Britain are withdrawn.
- 9. While I am speaking the decisive blow may be struck.
 - 10. Life has passed with me but roughly since I heard thee last.
 - . 11. Unless the gods smile human toil is vain.
 - 12. Arrived on the scaffold, Mary seated herself on the chair provided for her, with her face toward the spectators, calm and unmoved, and holding in her hand a golden cross.
 - 13. The bride kissed the goblet, the knight took it up;
 He quaffed off the wine, and he threw down the cup.
 - 14. You must do as you think best, but you must abide by the result of your action.
 - 15. I watched them until their forms disappeared over a neighboring hill, and then taking off my skates I wended my way to the house.

LESSON XXXVI.

NOTATION FOR REPRESENTING COMPOUND AND COM-PLEX SENTENCES TO THE EYE.

ENOUGH has now been done to begin the general analysis of sentences and paragraphs, by omitting from them such peculiar elements as still need special explanation. These latter will be introduced in successive lessons.

The question of using some form of representation to the eye as an aid to grammatical analysis is one not easy to settle. On the one hand, the oral analysis of a long sentence involves so many words and so many repetitions that it is both very difficult to hold in mind and very tedious to all

parties. On the other hand, any system of ocular presentation, to be useful, should be simple, comprehensive, and a real aid to analysis, not a substitute for it. Some of the systems in use are, with all their merits, cumbersome and confusing, and their tendency seems to be to lead students to make diagrams as the end of the study of analysis; that is, to put the means for the end.

In this book the sentence is treated as made up of propositions and modifiers; a simple way of writing these so as to show to the eye their structure and relation has been given and practiced in preceding lessons, so far as relates to simple propositions with their modifiers. If now, sentences of all kinds, such as are found following one another in books, can be reduced to propositions with their direct modifiers, and then these can afterward be reduced to their last elements as heretofore, this would seem to be sufficient. If a system of diagrams fits only selected sentences, it is, of course, inadequate to its proper purpose. The great variety of combinations in sentences makes it next to impossible to represent all to the eye without such multiplication of symbols and devices as tends to make the whole subject wearisome, if not disgusting: The following way of reducing compound and complex sentences to their first elements of propositions and modifiers is suggested as an aid to the analysis of sentences just as they stand in books, and as a convenient form for class work. It is adapted from a little tract given to the anthor many years ago by the late Professor Gibbs, of the Yale Divinity School, and believed to have been first published in the Massachusetts Teacher. Each teacher is likely to have his own way of writing sentences on the blackboard; the form is not essential, provided it represents to the eye what the teacher desires to have represented. It is given for

the assistance of those who have no better way of their own. It is, as it is meant to be, only a notation.

SYSTEM OF NOTATION

FOR COMPOUND AND COMPLEX SENTENCES.

- 1. Let the capital letters A, B, C, etc., stand for full independent propositions; the small letters a, b, c, etc., for full propositions subordinate to these.
- 2. If it does not seem to the teacher to make the notation too cumbersome, adjective, adverbial, and objective clauses may be designated by the numerals, 1, 2, 3, etc., as heretofore.

NOTE.—These numerals were used to denote the different word- and phrase-elements in the order in which they were taken up; adverbial clauses are presented after objective, because they are more numerous and more difficult; but it is not necessary to change the significance of the numbers, as at first used.

- 3. To express the connection of clauses, let the sign + stand for all coördinate relations, and the sign > for all sub-ordinate relations. As these would thus express only general connections, and as the relation of these parts is of great importance, let the connective be written over the sign; as, but, when,
- +, >,
- 4. The Algebraic vinculum or bar may be used to show that the parts influenced by it are to be taken together.
- 5. The parenthesis enclosing a letter may be used to show that the parts of clauses are inserted within each other.
- 6. In writing sentences according to this notation, (1) express by some symbol every part of the sentence; (2) express every part in the order in which it stands; (3) if connectives are omitted, put into the formula the punctuation mark

used, to show such connection; (4) supply only such elements as are really necessary to make the sentence clear, and indicate any not in the text by enclosing their symbol in brackets, [].

7. Of course, no notation is needed for simple sentences standing by themselves. To complete the notation of a paragraph, they are indicated by the sign A, as often as they occur.

Symbols for other parts will be given, as sentences requiring them are introduced.

PRACTICE.

The object of the practice is to show the manner of using the notation. The points are, (1) to tell what each letter stands for, and to reduce each part to final elements; (2) to describe the sentence as a whole from the formula.

1. Instantly all were in motion; and messengers rode off in all directions.

FORMULA. A + B.

The sentence is compound, consisting of two simple sentences connected by and.

2. Great was the excitement throughout all the colonies, and great was the wonder in England.

FORMULA. A + B.

3. At one time it was part of Pennsylvania, but it was always a small and peaceful community.

FORMULA: A + B.

4. The people of New Netherlands were not very fond of church going, but they were steady in support of public worship, and they had great respect for their ministers.

FORMULA.
$$A + B + C$$
.

5. There was a sound of revelry by night, And Belgium's capital had gathered then Her beauty and her chivalry, and bright The lamps shone o'er fair women and brave men.

A = of revelry 1 { a sound was } by night.9

$$B = Belgium's \ ^1 \ \{ \ capital \ had \ gathered \ \left\{ \begin{array}{l} then, ^9 \\ beauty \ ^8. \\ and \\ chivalry ^8 \end{array} \right\} \ her \ ^1.$$

$$C = \text{The lamps shone bright} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{o'er fair women 9} \\ \text{and} \\ \text{brave men.} ^{2} \end{array} \right.$$

6. We may not live to the time when this declaration shall be made good.

FORMULA.
$$A > a^1$$
.

$$A = We may live \begin{cases} not,^2 \\ to the time,^2 \end{cases}$$

 $a^1 = this \, {\{declaration shall be made good \} when.}^2$

7. The children of the forest were touched by the sacred doctrine, and they renounced their revenge, which was a second nature to them.

FORMULA. A + B >
$$a^1$$
.

8. Then he lay tranquil till he saw that the boat was approaching the wharf.

FORMULA.
$$A > a^2 > b^8$$
.

9. An encampment was formed on Capitol Hill; but a detachment marched along Pennsylvania Avenue to the

President's House, of which the great hall had been converted into a magazine; and before which some cannon had been placed.

FORMULA. A + B >
$$\frac{but}{a^1 + b^1}$$
.

A = An encampment was formed { on Capitol Hill?.

B = a detachment marched $\begin{cases} along Pennsylvania Avenue,^2 \\ to the President's House^2. \end{cases}$

 a¹ = great,¹ · of which,¹ } the hall had been converted } into a magazine,²
 b¹ = some¹ {cannon had been placed } before which.²

10. A frightful tumult succeeded to the stillness which had reigned in the city when the troops first entered it.

FORMULA. $A > a^1 > b^2$

11. I impeach him in the name of the people of India, whose rights he has trodden under foot, and whose country he has turned into a desert.

$\begin{array}{ccc} & & & \text{and} \\ & \text{whose} & & \text{whose} \\ \hline \text{FORMULA.} & \text{A} > & \text{a}^1 + & \text{b}^1 \end{array}$

12. When thou goest forth by day, my bullet shall whistle by thee: when thou liest down at night, my knife is at thy throat.

FORMULA.
$$a^2 < A : b^2 < B$$
.

13. Not until noon was the heavenly orb again revealed; then the glorious light was again unmasked and again the Syrian valleys rejoiced.

14. William Penn remained two years in his colony, and
then he went back to England, where he staid a long time,
because he was in poor health.

FORMULA. A + B >
$$a^1$$
 > b.

15. This event did not happen, and we lay still a long time waiting for what might come; but at length I told them there would be nothing done that night and I promised that we would find a way to escape if we could use some stratagem to get them ashore.

FORMULA. A + B >
$$a^4$$
 + C > b^3 + D > c^3 > d^3 .

16. A peace which consults the good of both parties is the best because both are interested in its preservation.

FORMULA. Which because
$$A(a^1) A > b^3$$
.

For partially compound sentences, it seems desirable to make the following changes in the notation:

- 1. To indicate two or more subjects put a small + before the letter which stands for the clause; thus + A = James and Charles study.
- 2. To indicate that two attributes or two entire predicates belong to one subject, put the same sign after the letter; thus A + = James is good and wise or James studies and plays.
- 3. When it is necessary from the structure of the sentence to indicate the subjects or the predicates separately—as when one or both are modified by clauses—do so by writing $\overline{S+S}$ before the clause-sign for subjects, and $\overline{P+P}$ after it for predicates; thus, the reason which you give and the additional information which I have convince me of its

17. Few and short were the prayers we said,.

And we spoke not a word of sorrow;
But we steadfastly gazed on the face of the dead,
As we bitterly thought of the morrow.

necessity $= S > a^1 + S > b^2 A$; that is, a sentence with two subjects, each modified by a clause.

FORMULA. $A + > a^1 + B + C > b^2$.

18. The captain commanded his men to fire and then immediately ordered a retreat.

FORMULA. $A + \text{ or } A \overline{P + P}$.

NOTE.—For convenience of separating what any letter represents into final elements it will often be better to use the symbols for each part of the proposition. When few or no modifiers are joined to parts made compound, it is simpler to indicate such parts by the added + merely.

19. You are sad and moody when you come to the senate.

FORMULA. $A + > a^2$.

LESSON XXXVII.

GENERAL DIRECTION FOR ANALYSIS.

For all future analysis the following order of steps is suggested, to be observed as minutely and fully as the teacher judges to be desirable.

- 1. Write a formula of each sentence, according to the notation given.
- 2. Describe the sentence as a whole and reduce it to clauses, by the formula written.
 - 3. Describe, as a whole, what each letter represents.
- 4. Write an analysis of each clause according to the form already given.
- 5. Parse, in short, as much of the text analyzed as seems best, according to the form in Lesson XII. Parse at least the words and phrases printed in italics.
 - 6. Question the sentence in all directions.

ILLUSTRATION.

SENTENCE. The daughter of the miller, who was a very poor man, went timidly to the king, as he sat in state, and while she stood before him in not a little fear a great shout arose from the people who had assembled to see the games and were becoming impatient at the long delay.

1. Formula. A (a) A >
$$b^2 + c^2 < B > d^1 \overline{P + P}$$
.

- 2. The sentence is a compound one consisting of two sentences connected by and. The first sentence is complex, consisting of one principal and two subordinate clauses, one adjective and one adverbial: the second sentence is complex, consisting of one principal clause, one adverbial clause, and one adjective clause with a compound predicate.
 - 3. A is the principal clause of the first sentence: a^1 is an adjective clause modifying A; b^2 is an adverbial clause modifying A; c^2 is an adverbial clause, modifying B; B is the principal clause of the second sentence; d^1 is an adjective clause, with two predicates, modifying B.

- 5, 1. the daughter, common noun, subject of 4.
 - 2. of, preposition, showing relation of 3 and 1.
 - 3. the miller, common noun, completing relation of 2.
 - 4. went, verb, predicate of 1.
 - 5. timidly, adverb, modifying 4.
 - 6. to, preposition, showing relation of 7 to 5.
 - 7. the king, common noun, completing relation of 6.
- 6. How is the miller described? How poor was he? Principal parts of went? Compare timidly. What is the adjective form of timidly? the verbal form? what is the opposite of timidly? What question does to the king answer about the verb went? What does the as-clause modify? What then is its uame? What does as connect? Who is he? How did he sit? Principal parts of sat? etc., etc.

NOTE.—In succeeding lessons a few questions on the sentences are given as a guide to the kind of questions that may be asked. The parts printed in italics are to be parsed.

LESSON XXXVIII.

COMPLEX SENTENCES: ADJECTIVE CLAUSES.

- 1. Adjective clauses perform three offices; (1) that of defining or restricting the application of a noun; (2) that of expressing some quality, or in some way describing that to which they are joined; (3) some of the offices of nouns in apposition.
- 2. The general connectives of the first and second kinds are the relative pronouns; of the third the connectives are various.

- 3. It is necessary to make a careful discrimination between restrictive, or definitive, and descriptive clauses. The distinction is the same as that between limiting and descriptive adjectives, and is best learned by examples. In the sentence, I want the book which you have in your hand, the word the shows that some particular book is in the speaker's mind, but it does not tell the hearer what book is meant; that is done by the adjective clause which follows; the clause in this case, then, is definitive, or restrictive. In the sentence, I want a book which is full of pictures, no particular book is meant; any one answering to the description, which is full of pictures, meets the desire expressed; the clause in this case is descriptive.
- 4. The determining question is, does the clause simply make definite, or does it add something about, that with which it is joined.
- 5. Other examples of definitive clauses are: There are two principal things that I had to live for. The prayer which he uttered was long. I summon from the shadowy past the forms that once have been. Not to give up all the questions which I was determined to solve.

Not all clauses, however, which refer the mind to the definitive word the in some other part of the sentence, are definitive; in the following the clause is descriptive: They were basking in the beams of the sun, which on that morning shone with all the warmth of summer.

6. Other examples of descriptive clauses are: He wore a wig that flowed behind. In his hand was a torch, which lighted up the cave. The silversmith gave him a double sum, which supported him for a long time. I hoped to find some creek that I might use as a port. Not to give up questions which I was determined to solve.

- 7. Of adjective clauses explanatory of nouns, or performing any office which, in the case of nouns, would put them in apposition with what they modify, these are examples: The question, what is to be done, must now be considered. Our fear that all was lost was soon confirmed. The inquiry, how it can be done, was raised. You do not tell me the reason why (or that) it is necessary. The decision whether we go or stay cannot be delayed. The connecting power of that, how, why, etc., is not so obvious in these uses; the words are rather introductory than directly connective; still there is no other link between the two clauses than these words.
- 8. It will be seen by the foregoing that some adjective clauses have an adverbial, or other connective; that is, the connective performs an adverbial office in its own clause, or it is one which is often other than adjective in office. Examples of this are: He came to the spot where the fort once stood. He lived in a time when votes were venal. He felt the presentiment that this stranger had come with good intent.

- 1. What offices do adjective clauses perform? 2. What are their connectives? 3. Distinguish between restrictive and descriptive clauses.
- 4. What is the determining question? 5. Give the examples of definitive clauses, and find others. 6. The same of descriptive clauses.
- 7. Give examples of explanatory clauses and others joined to nouns.
- 8. Give examples of adjective clauses whose connective is an adverbial word.

PRACTICE.

Analyze, according to the general directions given, the following sentences.

NOTE.—From this point on, words in italics are to be *parsed*. It is expected, of course, that particular attention will be paid in each lesson to the subject of the lesson; for example, to adjective clauses in the following exercise.

SENTENCES.

- 1. I eagerly listened to the echo that reverberated again and again.
- 2. In a moment my pursuers appeared on the bank above me, which here rose to the height of ten or twelve feet.
- 3. I never see a broad sheet of ice by moonlight without thinking of that snuffling breath, and of those ferocious beasts that followed me so closely down that frozen river.
 - 4. The deep affections of the breast, That Heaven to living things imparts, Are not exclusively possessed By human hearts.
 - A parrot, from the Spanish main,
 Which had been early caged, came o'er,
 With bright wings, to the bleak domain
 Of Mulla's shore.
 - 6. To spicy groves where he had won His plumage of resplendent hue, His native fruits, and skies, and sun, He bade adieu.
- 7. A story is told of another fox who displayed great sagacity in getting out of an equally bad scrape.
- 8. I determined to get sight of the young girl's drawing-book, which I suspected to have her heart shut up in it.
 - 9. Hearest thou voices on the shore That our ears perceive no more?
- 10. The theory that the earth is a plane was long since exploded.

- 11. What is the reason that you can never succeed?
- 12. The question whom shall we send, is the most important of all.
 - 13. I had grave doubts whether I was right.
- 14. The inquiry why this had been done was not now possible.
- 15. Then he gave a hitch to his trousers, which is a trick all sailors learn.

NOTE.—The questions are numbered to correspond with the number of the sentence in the exercise preceding them.

1. What echo is the echo? What is the meaning of reverberated? Can you substitute some other word? 2. Is the which-clause definitive or descriptive? Change this clause so that height shall be high, and there shall be no preposition in it. 3. Do any adjectives in this sentence not admit of comparison? Never means at no time; how is this meaning restricted in this sentence? Four words in the sentence cannot be understood from the sentence alone: what are they? 4. Is the that-clause descriptive or definitive? What is the opposite of deep? of living? of exclusively? of human? 5. Write this in prose order. 6. Is spicy compared? is native? Can you change of resplendent hue to a compound adjective? Can you change adjeu to a Saxon word? 7. Is the who-clause definitive? What does in show the relation between? Be sure you are right! 8. Can you take get-sight together as expressing one idea? In parsing which, look twice before you give its syntax. 9. Is the that-clause definitive? 10. What theory is the theory? When was this theory exploded? 11. Ask this question in a simple sentence. 12. Reduce this to a simple sentence. What degree of comparison is most important of all? 15. What is the antecedent of which?

LESSON XXXIX.

COMPLEX SENTENCES; ADJECTIVE CLAUSES CONTINUED.

- 1. THE relative pronouns, which connect adjective clauses, may be the objects of prepositions in their clause; as, The place on which we stand is holy ground. The relative in such uses is still the connective, as when it performs some other office in the sentence.
- 2. This construction occurs in other clauses besides adjective, but it will need no special mention when they are considered.

QUESTIONS.

1. What is the office of the relative pronoun in some clauses? In such instances, what is the connective? 2. In what other clauses is this found?

SENTENCES TO BE ANALYZED.

- 1. In the dark forests of Russia, in which the snow lies on the ground for about eight months in the year, wolves roam about in countless troops.
- 2. He found his way back by the road by which he had come.
- 3. All the jewels were in a case of which my mistress kept the key.
- 4. The king had a daughter whom none of the courtiers had ever caught sight of.
- 5. A great many things now take place at which people of the old time would have greatly wondered.

- 6. The weapon with which the foul deed was evidently done was brought into court.
 - 7. This is the conclusion to which I have come.
- 8. The traveller looked anxiously for the spring from which the water flowed.
- 9. We clearly saw the rocks on which the ship was surely drifting.
- 10. Is this the sole reward for which you have done so base a deed?

GENERAL.—Tell about each adjective clause, whether it is descriptive or definitive. Give the principal parts of each verb in the sentences. Are you sure you can spell every word in these sentences?

Particular.—1. Write this sentence so that the proposition will be at the beginning. Which is the better form? 2. Write this sentence, leaving out one preposition and object. 3. What is the simple predicate of the first preposition? Introduce a clause to define the jewels. 4. Write this sentence so that of shall not be the last word. 5. Can you substitute another word for things? 6. What weapon is the weapon? 7. Substitute a transitive verb for come to. 8. Can you reduce this to a simple sentence and say just what this does? 9. Where was the ship drifting? 10. So base a deed as what?

LESSON XL.

COMPLEX SENTENCES; SUBSTANTIVE CLAUSES.

1. Substantive Clauses perform the office of nouns, and as such are (1) subjects or (2) attributes of propositions, (3) objects of verbs and (4) of prepositions.

- 2. A peculiarity of these clauses is that they contain no proper connective, though they all contain a word which puts them into grammatical relation with the other part of the sentence.
- 3. All these clauses come under two heads; (1) those which contain an interrogative word, and (2) those which are introduced by the word that.
- 4. In these sentences, How I shall succeed is uncertain, My anxiety is how I shall succeed, and I do not know how I shall succeed, the clause introduced by how is, obviously, the subject, the attribute, and the object, respectively; as obviously, how modifies the verb of its clause, but it cannot be said to connect, formally, in either instance, though without this word the two parts of the sentence are not connected.
- 5. Besides, the subject and the attribute not being dependent but independent and necessary parts of the sentence, there is no need of any formal connection: they are joined immediately, as is the direct object and the object-clause. The indirect interrogative, then, implies, but does not formally state a connection.
- 6. What, then, shall be said about sentences containing such clauses? Not to multiply terms already too numerous in Grammar, and yet to maintain real distinctions, say that these clauses are joined as a whole—that is, impluding the interrogative words—to the verb as subject, attribute, or object.
- 7. As objective clauses, they may follow the verb in these relations: (a) as direct object of a transitive verb in the active voice: I will tell you how you must do this.
- (b) As the object remaining after the verb in the passive voice; as, You have been told how you must do this.
 - (c) Objective clauses follow some verbs which do not

admit other objects without the help of a preposition; as, wonder that, wish that, care that, insist that, etc.; as, I wonder that you do so, I insist that you are right.

- (d) As the object of a preposition; as, All depends on how you do this.
- 8. The word that, introducing substantive clauses, is a word sui generis. It is used to stand before subject, attribute-, or object-clauses. It is really a pro-sentence, or a sentence-article. (See Webster's Dictionary.) In the sentence, The certainty is that you are right, the real nature of the word may be seen by writing in this form: you are right; THAT is the certainty. That stands for the preceding sentence, you are right. Again, in the same sentence the makes definite the noun following, and they might be written thecertainty. So that might be regarded as pointing out, or making definite, the proposition that follows, and the two might be written thus, that-(you are right). It is not a connective in such cases, but really a demonstrative word, a sort of handle to hold the proposition by, which the idiom of the language requires to be used as a prefix.
- 9. How then shall that-clauses be described? Say they are subject-, attribute-, or object-clauses, introduced—not connected—by that.
- 10. How shall sentences with these clauses be named? As the object, in whatever form, is a dependent element, sentences containing object-clauses introduced by interrogative words or by the sentence-article that make complex sentences; they do, in fact, contain an independent and a dependent clause. Those which contain a clause of either sort used as subject or attribute, contain more than one proposition, on the one hand; these clauses, on the other hand, are not connected to the principal by a connective, and are not,

in any sense, dependent elements. The sentences are, strictly, neither simple nor complex; they should be described as sentences with a clause introduced by *that*, or whatever the interrogative word is, as subject or attribute.

11. A device for expressing subject- or attribute-clauses is necessary. They stand by themselves as peculiar constructions, and need expressing just as they are. The simplest way to bring them into the notation is to write their connective, or pro-sentence, before or after the letter representing this clause; as, That you have wronged me doth appear in this = that-A; the question is what shall we do next = A-what. This notation will show the structure, and the sentence may be described as one having a clause introduced by that or what, etc., for its subject or attribute.

QUESTIONS.

1. What offices have substantive clauses? 2. What is their peculiarity? 8. Under what two heads do they all come? 4. Give examples and show the use of the interrogative word. 5. How are these clauses joined to the other parts of the sentence? What, then, is the office of the interrogatives? 6. How shall sentences containing these clauses be named? 7. In what relations are they used as objective clauses? Give examples of each. 8. Give a full explanation of the word that, with examples. 9. How shall that-clauses be described? 10. How shall sentences containing them be named? 11. How shall they be indicated in the notation?

PRACTICE ..

Analyze the following sentences, paying special attention to substantive clauses. Parse each one as a clause.

- > 1. He did not know that it was so late.
- 2. John felt that he had sacredly kept every lock of hair which had been given to him by any of those girls.

- 3. He tells at home that he has seen the most wonderful book that ever was.
 - 4. He does not exactly know what he is sent home for.
- > 5. I have noticed that boys don't care much for conversation with the owners of fruit-trees.

NOTE.—It often represents a clause-subject which stands after the verb.

- 6. It is not true that this is the worst thing a boy can read.
- 7. He reads in the Old Testament that when Moses came to holy ground he put off his shoes.

FORMULA. $A > a^3$ (b³) a^3 .

- 8. He wondered whether she noticed how awkward he was.
- 9 It made no difference because it was easy.
- 10. He hid them, he did not know where.
- >11. Where I was I yet knew not.
- 12. The young scape-grace said he was only going to dig sweet-flag.
- 13. That young lady never knew what a cruel thing she had done.
- 14. The old lady inquired what had passed between the genie and her son during her absence.
- $7_{
 m the\ pond.}^{
 m 15.\ No\ boy\ can}$ explain why he stops to stone the frogs in
 - 16. It was a wild and rocky upland where our great pasture was.
 - > 17. The truth is that I am tired of ticking.
 - 18 I am astonished that you should say so.
- 19. The reason is that poetry demands more culture in the reader than prose.
 - 20. This is not what I should like to write about.

- 21. Our fate hangs on what alliances we form.
- 22. Only the country boy knows what a hardship it is to tie on stiff shoes.
- 23. I used to wish sometimes that I could make that grindstone fly into a dozen pieces.
- 24. The fact is that the amusements of a boy in the country are not many.
 - 25. I will give the money to whomsoever you shall send to receive it.

GENERAL QUESTIONS.

Find a double object in the sentences. Find a dependent clause subordinate to a dependent clause. Find an adverb, an indirect object and an adverbial phrase, which all modify the verb of a subordinate clause. In which sentence does the subordinate proposition come first? Is the where-clause in 16 adverbial? etc.

LESSON XLI.

COMPLEX SENTENCES: ADVERBIAL CLAUSES DENOTING TIME, OR TEMPORAL CLAUSES.

- 1. ADVERBIAL clauses of time are of great variety and number, denoting all the circumstances which adverbs denote, and others besides.
- 2. This is to be carefully noted about adverbial clauses; that the entire clause expresses for the sentence the same idea which the connective expresses for the clause. For example: James lives where his father lives: where his father lives denotes the place of James' living, as where does of his father's living. He does as he was told: as he was told denotes the manner of his doing, and as that of being told.

He came when he was called: when he was called denotes the time of coming, as when that of being called. The connective may indicate only in a general way, and sometimes quite indefinitely, the idea of time, place, etc., but still it is the same for its clause as the whole clause is for the sentence.

- 3. Temporal clauses denote various relations of time, the reference being to the principal clause. Keeping in mind that they are dependent on the principal clause, they may denote that
- (1) The time of the principal verb is antecedent to the time of the subordinate clause; as, we go before the bell rings.
- (2.) The time of the principal verb is the same with that of the subordinate clause; as, we go when the bell rings, or while the bell rings.
- (3.) The time of the principal verb is subsequent to that of the subordinate verb; as, we go after the bell rings.
- 4. The principal connectives of temporal clauses are before and after, which make the time of the action of the principal clause antecedent or subsequent to that of their own clause; when, which signifies at the time that; while, which signifies during the time that; till, which signifies up to the time that; and since, which signifies from the time that, and as, which denotes almost any relation of time.
- 5. When is also used interrogatively: before, after, till and since are used also as prepositions.
- 6. Ever and soever are added to when, making the meaning at any time that.
- 7. When and while and since are used to denote other relations than those of time; as, he remained in the ranks, when = though at the same time, he might have been promoted: while all this is true = though this is true, etc.; I will do it since = because, inasmuch as, you desire it.

1. What do adverbial clauses denote? 2. What is to be noted about adverbial clauses? Give the illustrations in the text. Find others. How do these differ from other adverbs? 3. To what do clauses of time refer? What are the principal relations expressed by them? Illustrate by examples. 4. What are the principal connectives, with their signification? 5. How, otherwise, are these words used? 6. What is the force of ever and soever added to when? 7. In what other senses are while, when and since used?

PRACTICE.

SENTENCES TO BE ANALYZED:

- 1. He did not smile at them again till he was much older.
- 2. One of the best things in farming is gathering hickory nuts after the frost has cracked the burrs.
- 3. He enjoys his work as he goes along.
- 4. The boy's eyes dilate with pleasure as he steals some of the treasures out of its wondrous pages.
 - 5. I have been very busy since you came.
 - 6. He blushed again as he thought of his ill-fitting shoes.
- >7. He went whenever he could find a good excuse.
- > 8. John was in the meadow by the river when the bobolink sang so gayly.
- 9. It seemed a good thing that we could rest on Saturday, when we were tired, and play on Sunday, when we were rested.
 - 10. Still is the story told,

When the goodman mends his armor, And trims his helmet plume > When the good-wife's shuttle merrily Goes quickly through the loom.

GENERAL.—Find all the adverbial phrases in the sentences. Tell precisely what each temporal connective joins and denotes. Ask and answer, about each sentence, such questions as these:

Up to what time does till mean? What was not done till that time? Which is first in order of time, being much older, or smiling at them again?

Particular.—1. When by inference did he smile again? 2. What part of speech is hickory? 3. When does he enjoy his work? 4. What makes the boy's eyes dilate? 5. Write the comparison of busy. 6. Does as express a reason as well as time? 7. How often did he go? 8. What is the complex attribute of the first proposition? 9. What does it stand for? Does it mean anything of itself? Does it ever do so? 10. Substitute a participle for quickly, to make the line more vivid.

LESSON XLII.

COMPLEX SENTENCES: LOCAL CLAUSES.

THE principal local relations expressed by clauses are:

- 1. Place in which the action of the principal verb is done; as, he lives where his father lives.
- 2. Place from which the action of the principal verb starts; as, he came whence his father came.
- 3. Place to or toward which that action tends; as, he went whither his father went. Where is generally used in place of whither.
- 4. The principal local connectives are where, whence and whither, which are also used as interrogative words.
 - 5. As already noticed, these connectives are used with

clauses performing other offices; as, come to the spot where we met (adjective); tell me where you live (substantive).

Where also expresses relations not always reducible to the notion of place: as, where every precaution has been taken, no one can be blamed = If in any place, etc., or on the supposition that, etc.

Whence denotes, also, the source or origin of what follows; as, the general disobeyed orders; whence or (hence) our disaster.

- 6. Where denotes in which place, or in what place? Whither denotes to which place, or to what place? Whence denotes from which place, or from what place?
- 7. Ever and soever are added to these words to make their application indefinite or general; as, wheresoever = in any place whatever.

QUESTIONS.

1-8. What are the principal local relations expressed by clauses?
4. What are the principal local connectives?
5. What other offices do they perform?
6. What does each of these connectives denote?
7. What is the force of ever or soever added to them?

SENTENCES TO BE ANALYZED.

- 1. Through the great lofts whove the hay, where the swal lows nested, the winter wind whistled.
 - 2. Where your treasure is there will your heart be also.
 - · 3. Then they travel along all day, where neither tuft nor turf was seen.
 - 4. I could not go back where the gunner had stored the powder for a fresh supply.
 - 5. Back to its heavenly source thy being goes, Swift as the comet wheels to whence he rose.

COMPLEX SENTENCES: CLAUSES DENOTING MANNER. 157

- 6. Where'er we tread 'tis holy ground.
- 7. He was found just where we left him.
 - 8. He departed whither he would.
- 9. Wheresoever the carcass is, the eagles are gathered together.
 - 10. He lay down to rest where night overtook him.

QUESTIONS.

Give the precise connection of each local connective. 1. Are you sure that the where-clause is adverbial here? 2. Where will your heart be? 3. Where do they travel? 4. Supply a phrase which will make the where-clause adjective in office. 5. What is the simple predicate in the first line? What is the object of to? 6. What is the antecedent of it in 'tis? 7. Where was he found? 8. What does whither modify? 9. What is the simple predicate of the first clause? 10. Does the where-clause tell definitely the place of lying down? Does anything in the sentence?

LESSON XLIII.

COMPLEX SENTENCES: CLAUSES DENOTING MANNER.

- 1. Adverbes express the definite manner of an action, as do also adverbial phrases; adverbial clauses express manner indefinitely, or rather relatively to the manner of some other action.
- 2. The principal connective of these clauses is as, which is also used to denote a variety of relations: [see Lesson LVIII] for example; Do as you please.
- 3. This word really denotes a correspondence or agreement between the actions expressed by the verbs of the two prop-

ositions; in the sentence given, no definite manner of doing is stated, but the doing and the pleasure of the doer are to correspond. Clauses which correspond with adverbs in the principal clause are more definite, and are considered in Lesson XLIX.

QUESTIONS.

1. What do adverbs express? Adverbial clauses? 2. What is the principal connective of these clauses? 3. What does this word express? Illustrate by examples.

SENTENCES FOR PRACTICE.

- 1. All turned out as I had anticipated.
- 2. The true poet sees things not always as they are, but as they ought to be.
 - 3. Socrates died as a philosopher dies.
 - 4. It is done as thou hast commanded.
- 5. He will stir his fins now and then as an elephant moves his ears.
 - 6. As I came will I return.
 - 7. It shall be done as you have said.
 - 8. He was living as his father before him had lived.
 - 9. Then you must go and come as it pleases you.
- _10. The lesson must be recited as the teacher directed.
 - 11. I do with my friends as I do with my books.
- 12. Forgive us our debts, as we forgive our debtors.
- 13. Does the soul put forth friends as the tree puts forth pleaves?
 - 14. Do thou bear the banner, as it was borne before.
 - 15. We scorn his fiercest anger,

As we loathe his foreign gold!

LESSON XLIV.

GENERAL EXERCISE ON THE ELEMENTS PRESENTED SO FAR.

SENTENCES TO BE ANALYZED:

All worldly shapes shall melt in gloom,
 The sun himself shall die,
 Before this mortal shall assume
 Its immortality.

FORMULA. A, $B > a^2$.

- 2. I saw a vision in my sleep

 That gave my spirit strength to sweep

 Adown the gulf of time ?
- 3. I saw the *last* of human mold,
 That shall *creation's* death behold,
 As Adam saw her prime.
- 4. I do not wonder at it now, as I look back.
- 5. I believe that a good school should be one that will fit men and women for the humble positions that the great mass of them must occupy in life.
- / 6. All the students get the idea that a man must be in public life.
 - 7. I am perfectly aware that I am not revealing pleasant truths.
 - 8. I repeat the proposition, that repose is the *cradle* of power.
 - 9. We touched at several islands on which we drove a profitable trade.
 - 10. Word was given that all seemed hopeful.

- 11. Old Caspar took it from the boy, Who stood expectant by.
- 12. He experienced a kind of delightful wickedness in indulging his dislike of Sunday.
- 13. Column and arch and dome rise upon the vision in painted light.
- 14. The gobbler does not eat one grasshopper while any one is watching him.
 - 15. He knows that for months to come the pantry will contain golden treasures.
 - 16. Then I called a council whether I should take back the raft.
 - 17. He wonders next how much the horses cost.
 - 18. Those who heard him grumble at the neglect with which he was treated would have supposed him ripe for rebellion. 19. But this ill humor lasted only till the throne was really in danger. 20. It was precisely when those whom the sovereign had loaded with honors shrank from his side that the country gentlemen, so surly and mutinous in the season of his prosperity, rallied round him in a body.
 - 21. There the historian of the Roman Empire thought of the days when Cicero pleaded the cause of Italy against Verres, and when, before a senate which still retained some show of freedom, Tacitus thundered against the oppression of Africa.
 - 22. Hastings advanced to the bar and bent his knee.
 - 23. On Linden when the sun was low,
 All bloodless lay the untrodden snow.
 - 24. Fitz-James looked round, yet scarce believed The witness that his sight received.
 - 25. The queen asked him whether he had forgotten who it was he was speaking to.

1. What conjunction might be supplied? What does before connect? 2. Is the "vision" described an indefinite or a definite one? Is the that-clause descriptive? What is the common form of adown? What is the indirect object of gave? 3. Express of human mold in one word. What is the antecedent of her? What does the as-clause modify? What does it denote? What is the meaning of prime? 4. What does the as-clause denote? 5. What is the office of the first that-clause? Of the second? Does in life modify occupy or positions? Who are meant by them? Compare all the adjectives. 6. What idea is the idea? What is the simple predicate of the subordinate clause? What man is a man? 7. Parse the that-clause. 8. Parse the that-clause. 9. Can you substitute another word for drone? 10. Parse the that-clause, 11. What kind of verb is stood? 12. What is the simple object of experienced? Be sure you are right in this! 13. Is upon his vision adverbial or objective? What number is the verb? 14. For how long does the gobbler, etc.? What particular gobbler is meant? 15. What does for months to come modify? Is golden compared? What part of speech is that? 16. Is there an omission of any thing necessary to the sense? 17. What tense is cost? 18. Find a double object. What does for rebellion denote about ripe? 19. What does but connect? What does really modify? How long did this ill humor last? 20. What does precisely modify? What does that connect? Give the mode and tense of each verb. 21. What is the relation of the two when-clauses to each other? 22. Is to the bar objective or adverbial? 23. Write this in prose order. Is untrodden an adjective or a participle? What is the simple predicate of the principal clause? Of the subordinate? 24. Is yet the connective of the two predicates? Is the that-clause descriptive? 25. How many clauses in this sentence? Is any connective to be supplied? Make this sentence into a better one.

LESSON XLV.

COMPLEX SENTENCES: CAUSAL CLAUSES.

- 1. It is difficult to determine whether causal clauses should be considered as subordinate to a leading clause, or as coordinate with it. In the sentence, we must do this because it is right, the proposition it is right stands as the reason for the proposition we must do this: is the latter grammatically dependent on the former? If we expand the connective, the sentence might be, we must do this for the cause—adverbial phrase modifying do-that-sentence-article, doing for the proposition following what the noun-article does for the word cause—it is right. There is a relation between the two clauses, for they do not mean the same if the connective is omitted, but the connection is not the same as in the case of a relative pronoun or relative adverb. Still, they are as near to being subordinate as they are to being coördinate, and it is as well to regard them, as they are generally classified, as making complex sentences.
- 2. Causal clauses are those which express the cause or reason of the action of the principal predicate. The principal connectives of these clauses are, for, because, since, as, inasmuch as, whereas.
 - 3. They denote
- (1) The cause of an effect, or that which produces an effect; as, The crop has failed because there has been no rain. The latter clause expresses the cause of the fact stated in the former.
- (2) The reason of something, that which leads to results, that on which it rests as a ground; as, Obey your parents,

for this is right. The latter clause expresses the reason of the command in the former clause.

- (3) Motive, that which leads to an act; or, more generally, its origin or source; as, He did this because he was ambitious, The latter clause expresses the motive of his doing this.
- 4. It is difficult, sometimes, to distinguish among these three kinds of clauses, which for purposes of grammar may all be classed as *causal*, but it is a good mental exercise to question them all closely.
- 5. Sometimes the causal clause stands as the leading one without a connective, and is followed by the statement based upon it, which latter is accompanied by the words, therefore, wherefore, hence, etc. For example; This is right, therefore we must do it. The proposition we must do it is an inference or deduction from the first proposition, this is right. Such clauses are called illative, and the connectives are called illatives. Other illative connectives are, accordingly, consequently, so, then.
- 6. "Causal connectives indicate a proposition from which something follows; they correspond conversely with the illative particles which point out that which does follow."—Worcester's Dictionary.
- 7. "Of these connectives because is the strongest and most emphatic; for is not quite so strong; since is less formal and more incidental than because; as is still more incidental than since, and points to some existing fact by way of assigning a reason; insomuch as seems to carry with it a kind of qualification which does not belong to the rest. Whereas is used to introduce resolutions."—Webster's Dictionary.

1. Are causal clauses to be regarded as dependent? Explain an example or two, and state the conclusion. 2. Define causal clauses. What are the principal connectives? 3. What do they denote? 4. Can a distinction be made among them? 5. Explain illative clauses by examples. 6. How does Worcester's Dictionary distinguish causal and illative connectives? 7. Give Webster's account of the force of the causal connectives.

SENTENCES FOR PRACTICE.

- 1. I slept quietly all night, for I was very weary.
- 2. It was my business to go before the flood-tide began, for otherwise I might not be able to reach the shore at all.
- 3. I looked on both sides for a proper place to land, for I was not willing to be driven far up the river, because I hoped to see some ship at sea.
- 4. It does not follow that I wish to be pickled in brine, because I like a salt-water plunge at Nahant.
 - 5. And right is right, since God is God.
 - 6. At last, because the time was ripe, I chanced upon the poets.
- 7. Inasmuch as ye have done it unto these, ye have done it unto me.
 - 8. I believe; therefore, have I spoken.
 - 9. I will walk at liberty, for I seek thy precepts.
 - 10. As you command me, I have no choice.
- 11. Whereas all this and more is true, we resolve to endure it no longer.
 - 12. The moon was shining sulkily,
 Because she thought the sun
 Had got no business to be there
 After the day was done.

- 13. You could not see a cloud,

 Because no cloud was in the sky.
- 14. The roads were *impassable*; so I was obliged to stay where I was.
 - 15. Then home we will hasten
 While yet we can see,
 For no watchman is waiting
 For you and for me.
- 16. As no tools have been provided, we must e'en do without them.
 - 17. This is granted; consequently, let there be no delay.
- 18. As he had never expected so great success his delight was unbounded.
- 19. The man has done all that he promised: he must, accordingly, be paid all he was promised.
- 20. Since I had no money of my own to give, I could but pray that God would bless your majesty.

1. What was the reason of sleeping quietly? What does very express? 2. What was my business? Why? What does otherwise modify? 3. Where did I look? What for? Why? What reason for this reason? What does far modify? What does at sea modify? 4. What does not follow? What is the because-clause the reason of? 5. What is the reason of the first statement? 6. What is the simple predicate of the because-clause? 7. Is unto me adverbial? Which of these clauses is causal? 8 Which of these clauses is causal? 9. What is the effect of seeking thy precepts? 10. Why have I no choice? 11. What is the ground of our resolve? 12. Is the principal idea of the first predicate in the verb, or in the adverb? Write the line so that the predicate shall directly express sulkiness. 13. Why could you not see a cloud? What is the simple predicate in the second line? 14. Which is the causal clause? Is was a copula? What is so?

15. Whither will we hasten? What does yet denote? Is for you adverbial? 16. What is we must do without them the consequence of? 17. What is the ground of the command? 18. What was the measure of his delight? Why? 19. Which is the causal clause? 20. What does since connect? What does that connect?

LESSON XLVI.

COMPLEX SENTENCES: FINAL CLAUSES.

- 1. Final clauses are of two kinds; those which denote purpose, and those which denote result, of the action expressed by the principal clause. In meaning they are the opposite of causal clauses; these denote the source or origin of an act; those the end or termination of it.
- 2. Clauses of purpose denote what an act is done for; not the motive, but what end it is directed to: clauses of result denote what comes from the act expressed by the principal verb. The connective of both is THAT. For example: Speak, that I may know thee: that is, knowing thee is the purpose of the speaking which is commanded. Speak so that you can be heard: that is, being heard is the result of speaking so.
- 3. The connective that stands by itself in clauses of purpose. These may denote an affirmative or a negative purpose; the latter is expressed by that not or lest; take heed that ye sin not, or lest ye sin. Another variety contains a negative in both clauses; as, do not stir, lest you upset the boat. That, in these clauses, is equivalent to in order that, to the end that.
 - 4. The connective that, in clauses of result, is associated

with the words so and such in the principal clause, and denotes what follows from the indefinite degree or manner or quality of what these words are joined with; as, he came so late that nothing was done; nothing being done was the result of that degree of lateness expressed by so late: he acted so that all thought him mad is that all thought him mad was the result of that manner of acting expressed by acted so: he was such a liar that no one believed him; no one's believing him was the result of his being such a liar.

- 5. It is important that this relation of clauses of result should be clearly understood, and therefore another example is added. He had done me so many favors that I could not ask for more. What had he done? Many favors. How many? So many. How many is so many? Not ten or twenty, but enough to prevent asking for more; the result of receiving so many is that I could not ask for more.
- . 6. Formally, so or such and that are correlatives; really, the indefinite idea expressed by so or such is made definite by the clause of result introduced by that.
- 7. The corresponding words in these clauses may stand together, or they may be separated by intervening words; as, We walked rapidly, so that we were very tired, or, we walked so rapidly that, etc. On the other hand, so is not always followed by that.

QUESTIONS.

1. What kinds of final clauses? What is their relation to causal clauses? 2. What do clauses of purpose denote? Clauses of result? Give examples. What is the common connective of both? 3. What may that-clauses denote? What word is equivalent to that not? What is the meaning of that in such cases? 4. What is the connective in clauses of result? Explain by examples. 5. Give another example. Find others. 6. What is the relation of so- and

such-elements to that-clauses? 7. Where may the corresponding words stand?

SENTENCES FOR PRACTICE.

NOTE.—The relations of these clauses will be best represented by writing both connecting and corresponding term above the sign; thus, such that

- 1. Praise between man and man is so rare that we know neither how to bestow it nor how to receive it.
 - 2. So translucent was it, that I could look for miles into its clear depths.
 - 3. Be silent, that you may hear.
 - 4. The mind and the character can be so symmetrical that they lose all charm and all significance.
 - 5. He was only trying to invent a new mode of locomotion, that he might encourage his legs.
 - 6. He had such a longing for them that he pined away.
 - 7. Thanksgiving day was so subdued by going to meeting that the boy could not enjoy it.
 - 8. The crops were in such a state that they could not be gathered.
 - 9. The weather was so clear that the sea did not rage.
 - 10. There are so many bright spots in the life of a farmer's boy that I think I should like to live it over again.
 - 11. Do thy diligence lest the reward come not at the last.
 - 12. You should be careful what you say, that you may be understood.
 - 13. Take good heed, lest ye hear in vain.
 - 14. It is wise to do one's best at all times, that success may at least be deserved.
 - 15. So many thoughts crowd into the mind that it is difficult to choose among them.

1. How many objects must between always have? What is that we know, etc., the result of? What phrases are made to correspond by neither and nor? 2. Does the that-clause denote purpose or result? 3. For what purpose are you to be silent? 4. What does that they lose, etc., result from? 5. What was he trying to do? With what purpose? 6. What was the result of having such a longing? Is for them adverbial? 7. Of what is the that-clause the result? 8. How is the meaning of such explained in the sentence? 9. Change this to a clause denoting cause, followed by the result stated as an inference. 10. Do the same with this sentence. 11. What is to be the result of doing thy diligence? 12. What result will follow being careful? 13. Of what is not hearing in vain the result? 14. What is wise? To what purpose is it wise? 15. What makes it difficult to choose? What is difficult?

LESSON XLVII.

COMPLEX SENTENCES: CONDITIONAL OR IF-CLAUSES.

- 1. Some clauses are joined to the principal to grant something on which the principal action of the sentence is contingent or dependent. The connective of these clauses is if, which signifies grant, or allow, on the supposition that. The negative form is unless, or except.
- 2. For example; We shall go, if it is pleasant: going is contingent on its being pleasant. The if-clause, expressing something uncertain, makes the action of the principal clause doubtful, and it is said to be in the subjunctive mode.
- 3. Many cases arise under this general statement which will be best understood by examples.

- (a) Both clauses may be affirmative, as in the example above.
- (b) One may be negative and one affirmative; as, We shall not go, if it rains; not going is contingent on its raining. We shall go, if it does not rain; going is contingent on its not raining.
- (c) Both clauses may be negative; as, We shall not go unless it is pleasant: not going is contingent on its not being pleasant.
- 4. More perplexing differences of meaning arise from the use of different tenses in the *if-clause*. The following are the principal varieties:

(a) PRESENT TIME:

If I have a dollar—which I am not certain about—I will lend it to you.

If I am there—I do not know whether I shall be or not—I will speak.

Unless some one comes—which is uncertain but very urgent—he will die.

If help comes—which we hope, but are not sure of—all will be right.

If I have offended you—as it seems—I am sorry.

In these sentences, the supposition is doubtful, and so the contingent action is doubtful.

(b) PAST TIME:

If I had a dollar—which I have not—I would lend it to you.

If I were you—as I am not—I would go.

If thou hadst been here—as thou wast not—my brother had not died.

In these sentences, the supposition is contrary to fact, and so the opposite of the action contingent on it is true.

(c) FUTURE TIME:

I will give you a dollar, if you will go—will you?

What will you give me, if I will tell you?—as perhaps I will.

I will go, if he will promise to go-will he?

In these sentences the act supposed is future and uncertain; when it becomes a fact—if it does—then the action contingent on it becomes a fact also.

Some contingent clauses are future in fact, though not in form; as, if it should rain, we shall not go.

QUESTIONS.

1. What is the office of some clauses? What connective expresses this relation? What are the negative forms? 2. Illustrate by examples. 3. Illustrate by sentences the different cases of affirmative and negative clauses. 4. The same, with suppositions made (a) in present time; (b) in past time; (c) in future time. Find other examples. State the general principle with reference to each set of examples.

SENTENCES FOR PRACTICE.

- 1. If a man's soul is in his pocket, he should be punished there.
- 2. The boy is willing to do any amount of work, if it is called play.
 - 3. If he had his way, he would do nothing in a hurry.
- 4. If the boy felt little exhibitation on Thanksgiving day, he ate a good deal.
- 5. If there was anything which he hated, it was spreading hay after the mowers.
 - 6. Except ye repent, ye shall all likewise perish.
 - 7. Unless it had been true, I would not have said it.

- 8. If a country boy were wise, he would stay at that age when he would enjoy himself most.
- 9. All would have been lost in that hour of misery, unless succor had come from this unexpected quarter.
- 10. I saw very plainly that if we had kept aboard we should all have been safe.
- 11. Unless you will do me this kindness, I must give up all hopes of the prize.
 - 12. If it were always rain,

 The flowers would be drowned;

 If it were always sun,

 No flowers would be found.
 - If our king be taken from us,
 We are left to guard his son.
 - 14. I am happy if you are prosperous.
 - 15. If it were not so, I would have told you.

QUESTIONS.

Ask about each supposition in the sentences what it implies.

1. Where is there? What man is a man? 2. What is really the simple object of to do? What is formally, that is, grammatically? 3. Does he have his way? How, then, about doing things in a hurry? 4. What are contrasted here? Does if mean very much the same as though here? 5. What does it represent? Was there anything he hated? 6. What tense is repent? What time does the clause express? 7. Was it true? What mode and tense is would have said? 8. Does he stay at that age? Is he, then, wise? Is the when-clause adverbial? 9. Did succor come? Was all lost? 10. What is the office of the that-clause? Were all safe? 11. What direct and indirect objects in this sentence? 12. Is it always rain? Are there no flowers? What does it stand for? 18. What mode and tense is be taken? 14. On what does my happimess depend? 15. Mode and tense of were?

LESSON XLVIII.

COMPLEX SENTENCES: CONCESSIVE AND ADVERSATIVE CLAUSES.

- 1. Concessive clauses are used to grant something as a cause or reason in opposition to the statement of another clause.
 - 2. This concession is made in two ways:
- (a.) By clauses introduced by though, although, or albeit, and however; for example, Though he was rich, yet for our sakes he became poor; notwithstanding what you say, I cannot believe the story; however this may be, the fact remains. The first clause of all these sentences allows something which is opposed to what is stated in the second clause, but the second is still true, notwithstanding this opposition of meaning.
- (b.) The indefinite relatives are used in the same way, sometimes; as, whichever road you take, you will reach the place = though you should take one or the other road, etc. Whoever says this, it is false = Though any one says this, etc. While is also used in the same way: e.g., while this may be true, the fact remains = though this, etc.
- 3. A concession may be made, also, (a) by such forms of expression as, Brave as he was, this daunted his courage = Though he was very brave, etc. Whatever may be done, etc. (b) By a phrase, equivalent in meaning to a concessive clause, as, despite, or notwithstanding, his bad temper, he is not a bad man = Though he has a bad temper, etc. These last, containing only one clause, are simple sentences.
- 4. Properly speaking, all these concessive clauses are followed by clauses containing an adversative conjunction and

so they are formally opposed to each other. This conjunction, however, is not always expressed, but when expressed makes a peculiar sentence not yet described. Without this the sentences may be called complex, and the concessive clause may be taken as the dependent one.

5. The main difference in meaning between though and although is that the latter is considered to be more emphatic. Albeit is very little used.

QUESTIONS.

1. How are the clauses considered in this lesson used? 2. What is the first form of making concessions? Illustrate by examples. What is the second form? Illustrate by examples. 3. What other forms of clause make a concession? What phrases do the same? 4. By what are all concessive clauses really followed? What kind of sentence are these? 5. What is the difference of meaning between though and although?

SENTENCES FOR PRACTICE.

- 1. Though an angel from heaven should declare the truth of it, I should not believe it.
- 2. However this event may turn out, the cause is lost beyond all hope.
- 3. Cautious as the general had always been, this opportunity was eagerly embraced.
- 4. Whatever excuse you may offer (= though you offer any excuse you please or can) the offence is unpardonable.
- 5. Though hand join in hand, the wicked shall not be unpunished.
- 6. I liked the elephants a great deal better, though they were not dressed in crimson velvet at all, and had no golden towers on their backs.

- 7. Wise as you are, you don't know this.
- 8. I could not help laughing, though I tried hard not to.
- 9. You must not be proud, although you wear such fine clothes.
- 10. Honesty is the best policy, though trickery often seems < to succeed.

QUESTIONS.

Answer, about each sentence, these two questions: (1) What is conceded in it? (2) and what is opposed to this concession? and do this very definitely.

Further: Write out, for each sentence which admits of it, an expansion of the concessive clause; e. g., the second sentence = this event may turn out in any manner, and for all this, etc.

LESSON XLIX.

COMPLEX SENTENCES: CLAUSES DENOTING COMPARISON.

- 1. Some clauses are added to the principal clause of the sentence to express a comparison of two actions, qualities, or circumstances. These clauses, through their connectives, correspond with some word or group of words in the principal clause, and sometimes the entire clauses correspond with each other.
 - 2. There are three cases.
- (a) Some sentences assert that two qualities, manners, etc., are equal to each other. They do this by a clause introduced by as, and corresponding with the word or words

expressing that with reference to which the comparison is made, also introduced by as.

For example; He did his duty as well as he could. How did he do his duty? Well. How well? As well. How well is as well? As well as he could; that is, his ability to do well and his doing well are asserted to be equal.

(b) Again: He is as good as he can be. How good is he? The sentence does not assert any degree of goodness, but by the word as before good leads us to expect some comparison by which we can estimate its degree. Then, how good is he? as good as he can be; that is, his goodness = his ability to be good.

Notice here that no absolute degree of goodness is asserted; a comparison is made between ability to be, and being, good.

- (c) Again: James is as good as Charles. Here James and Charles are compared as to goodness, and they are asserted to be equal in that respect.
- (d) If the negative form were used in the first clause, so would generally be used in place of as; thus, he is not so tall as I.
- (e) How is the first as to be disposed of? It is an adverb of indefinite degree, modifying the following word or words.

How is the second as to be disposed of? It is a conjunction, corresponding with the first as, and connecting its clause to the word or words which the first as modifies.

(f) Two qualities or circumstances belonging to the same person or thing may also be compared in this way; as, he is as foolish as he is young.

This is called comparison of equality.

3. Some sentences assert inequality of the manners, qualities, etc., which are compared in the two clauses. This

comparison is made by the conjunction than, which corresponds with the sign—the suffix er, or the word more—of the comparative degree, accompanying the word or words expressing that with reference to which the comparison is made. As the correspondence is expressed in the preceding case by the correlatives as, as, it is expressed in this case by the correlatives er, or more, than.

For example: He is taller than his brother; he and his brother are compared with reference to tallness; that they are unequal in this respect is shown by the suffix er, followed by the than-clause.

Again; he acted more wisely than he knew; his acting and knowing are compared, and are unequal; this is shown by the comparative word more and the than-clause following.

- 4. This is to be noticed about both these cases: There is really a word of quality, manner, etc., in each clause, accompanied by a sign—suffix or word—of degree. Thus to expand each example given: (1) he did his duty as well as he could (do it well); (2) he is as good as he can be (good); (3) James is as good as Charles (is good); (4) he is tall-er than his brother (is tall); (5) he acted more wisely than he knew (that he acted wisely).
- 5. How shall than be disposed of? It is a conjunction, which brings the statement of its clause into comparison with something in the principal clause; it thus connects its clause to the word, suffix, or group of words, to which the corresponding sign of degree is joined.

This is called comparison of inequality.

6. Some sentences assert that one quality, manner, etc., varies as another quality or manner does. For example; he is as much wiser as he is older. To what degree is he wiser? Much wiser. How much? As much as he is

older. Here two qualities of the same person vary in the same degree, and this equality of variation is shown by the corresponding terms as, as.

This is called proportionate equality.

7. Another mode of expressing this form of comparison is this: the older he grows, the wiser he becomes. The comparison here is made by the word the: this, however, is not the article, but the dative case of the Saxon demonstrative, and is equivalent to the phrase by that. For example: The = by that = by as much as, he grows older, the = by that he becomes wiser.

For the classification of such sentences as wholes, see Lesson LXI.

- 8. Sometimes an infinitive phrase is used instead of a clause; as, I was not so foolish as to believe all his story.
- 9. Clauses of comparison are very often elliptical in structure, and in order to a full analysis it is necessary to supply omitted parts. It is not best to do this, however, unless it is really necessary.

QUESTIONS.

1. What is the office of some added clauses? What is the grammatical relation of these? How many cases are there? 2. (a) State the first. Illustrate by the examples given. (b) Give and explair another example. Are the assertions of such clauses absolute? (c) Give another example. (d) What change does the negative form generally take? (e) How is the word as in each clause to be disposed of? (f) What further variety of this kind of comparison? What is it called? 3. State the second case. Illustrate by examples and find others. 4. What is to be noticed about both of these cases? 5. How is than to be disposed of in these constructions? What is this kind of comparison called? 6. State the third case. Give ex-

amples. What is this called? 7. What is another form of this? Explain this use of the word the. 8. What is sometimes used in these sentences? 9. What must sometimes be supplied?

SENTENCES FOR PRACTICE.

NOTE.—The correspondence will be sufficiently presented in the notation by writing the signs of both parts; thus, more, than; as, as; over the sign of connection, as in Lesson XLVI.

- 1. She went through the halls with as much caution as the fear of death could inspire. $= A^{as as}_{> b}$,
- 2. Any boy would rather hoe corn all day than weed the garden for an hour.

NOTE. Rather is a proper comparative degree.

- 3. Ed. May is as jolly as he used to be.
- 4. Self-denial is just as good for grown up people as it is for children.
- 5. There is more nonsense talked about culture than there is about any thing else.
- 6. A boy can stand on one foot as well as a Holland stork can.
- 7. There is as much difference between praise and flattery as there is between praise and blame.
- 8. I have never seen any girls so lovely as those were who used to sing in the gallery of that bare old meeting-house.
- 9. No play ever seemed so sweet to a boy as that between sundown and dark on Sunday. This is on the supposition that he had conscientiously kept Sunday and hadn't gone in swimming.
 - 10. I take thy courtesy as freely as 'tis nobly given.
 - Soon as the evening shades prevail,
 The moon takes up the wondrous tale.

- 12. The reading was rendered less tedious than it otherwise would have been by the silver voice and just emphasis of Cowper, the clerk of the court.
 - 13. This is as much too large as the other was too small.
 - 14. The sea was wet as wet could be, The sands were dry as dry.
- 15. It would be far easier to die for my friend than to live without him.
- ≥ 16. This little goblin was far more clever than any of his brothers was.
 - 17. There the little ancient man Cracks as fast as crack he can.
 - 18. I know I'm further off from heaven Than when I was a boy.
 - 19. The richer he was the more did he love and hoard his money.
 - 20. The less we see of that sort of people the better off we are, always.
 - 21. He is no more drunk than I am crazy.
 - 22. No man can look so wise as he can and for so long a time.
- 23. He pleaded the case of his client as *eloquently* as ever lawyer did, but all was in vain.
- 24. The farther off a tyrant is removed from me, the better pleased am I.
- 25. The *sooner* she returns to her home, the *warmer* shall her welcome from me be.

QUESTIONS.

GENERAL.—Tell what are compared in each sentence and how the parts agree or differ. For example: in 1, the caution with which she went through the halls is compared with the caution which the fear of death could inspire, and the first is as great as the second.

Particular.—1. With what degree of caution did she go? 2. With what is hoeing corn compared? What two times are contrasted? What mode and tense is weed? 3. How jolly did Ed. May used to be? Does used express a full verbal idea? 4. What does just modify? What are the two simple predicates? 5. What word without any syntax? What ellipsis in the sentence? 6. Complete the second predicate. 7. Write this sentence, changing dif ference to the adjective form. What are the two simple predicates? 8. What are those girls compared with? Does so follow a negative here? 9. What does that stand for? What is that in the second sentence? Substitute a word for sundown. Parse to a boy as a phrase. 10. What is given? What is taken? Compare the two adverbs. 11. Does take up express more than one idea? Interpret the three articles. 12. What does by the voice, etc., modify? What is the simple predicate of the than clause? Compare tedious in two ways? 13. What kind of comparison is here made? 14. Complete the second line. What are the two simple propositions? 15. Is this a complex sentence? What are the two subjects? 16. What does than connect? 17. Is cracks a transitive verb here? ellipsis between than and when. 19. What is the first simple predicate? 20. Does better off express two ideas? 21. Is drunk compared? 22. What are the two simple predicates? 23. Did what? All what? 24. What word in the first clause answers to better in the second? 25. What is the quickness of her return compared with?

LESSON L.

SOME ADVERBIAL PHRASE-ELEMENTS.

1. Some peculiar phrase-elements have been excluded from sentences thus far, because they would be more readily understood after the preceding lesson on clauses denoting comparison. They are such as denote degree, quantity, measure and comparison.

- 2. Degree may be denoted (a) by some adverb modifying the word adjective or adverb—to which it is joined, and making its meaning more intense; as, very good, strikingly handsome, exceedingly well. The degree so denoted is either positive or comparative.
- 3. Degree is also denoted (b) by phrases expressing excess, defect, or comparison; as, neat to nicety, a gentleman to his finger nails, learned in nothing, small for = compared with his age. The degree so denoted may be either comparative or absolute.
- 4. Degree is also denoted (c) directly by measure; this is done by numerals joined to the standard of measurement. For example: He is ten years old; is old is the predicate; how old is he? years old, years being the measurement of age; how many years? ten; ten years, then, modifies old, and expresses the degree or measure of age. So in the ditch is four feet deep; is deep is the predicate, feet is the measure of depth, and four is the exact number of feet; four feet, then, modifies deep by expressing the degree or measure of depth.

How are years and feet to be parsed? As nouns without case—that is, any of the named cases—after old and deep, denoting degree or measure. There is no need to torture the sentence by supplying a preposition.

5. (a) Degree is also denoted by phrases expressing a kind of comparison. For example: The speech was good enough for the occasion; enough indefinitely expresses degree of goodness, and the occasion is that with which the speech is compared, or that with reference to which the assertion of the sentence is made; the occasion and the speech, that is, were equal.

- (b) Again: The speech was too good for the occasion; in this, too denotes excess indefinitely, and the occasion denotes that compared with which the goodness of the speech was in excess; the occasion and the speech, that is, were unequal.
- (c) Such phrases are analyzed by saying that enough and too modify by denoting degree indefinitely, and that the phrase modifies the same word by denoting that with which the comparison is made.
- (d) How are too and for to be parsed? Too is an adverb modifying good, and for shows the relation between occasion and enough, just as the clause of comparison corresponds with the word of quality, manner, etc.
- 6. Degree, then, may be expressed in three forms; positively, but without fixed standard; as, very long, long to excess; as denoting equality with something; as, long enough for use; as denoting inequality with something; as, too long for use.
- 7. Degree of difference, or measure of excess of one thing over another, may be denoted, (a) indefinitely, by adverbs prefixed; as, he is *much* older; by phrases expressing some exact measure of difference; as, he is (by) ten years older; by comparison with something else; as, he is as much older as he is wiser.
- 8. Sometimes the infinitive phrase is used to express comparison; as, it is too stormy for going out, or to go out; it is good enough for use, or to use.
 - 9. To these may be added two other forms of phrases.
- (a.) He could do no less than to assist. In this sentence, to assist expresses, in a manner, one side of a comparison of which the other side is no less: no less is the object of could do, and than connects to assist to the phrase no less. This construction is nearly equivalent to those considered above.
 - (b.) She was the most beautiful of all. In this sentence,

most denotes degree of beauty; all denotes those with whom she is compared. Of all, then, modifies she, as denoting those among whom the comparison of beauty is made.

- 10. All these phrases of comparison may be considered as adverbial in their office, as they are for the most part joined to adjectives and other terms admitting such modifiers. They do not make complex sentences.
- 11. The principle of the last paragraph but one may be extended one step further, to clauses following the superlative degree. For example: This is the most serious mistake that ever was made; what does the that-clause modify? that obviously represents the noun mistake, but the clause has reference to all the mistakes involved in the superlative most serious: of all the serious mistakes made this is the most serious. To write the sentence in another form, this is the most-that-ever-was-made-serious mistake. This view seems to make the clause correspond with the superlative word most and to modify what it does, namely, serious. The same would be true if the superlative were indicated by the termination est.

NOTE.—The teacher will dispose of these clauses in this way, or call them adjective after the noun, as he decides.

QUESTIONS.

1. What phrase-elements are here considered? 2. How is degree denoted, first? Give illustrations. What is the character of the degree so denoted? 3. How, next, is degree denoted? Give illustrations? What is the character of this form? 4. How next is degree denoted? Explain the examples given. In, he is ten years old, how is years parsed? 5. How is degree denoted next? Explain the examples in (a), (b), (c) and (d). Tell how to analyze and parse good enough, or too good, for me. 6. Recapitulate the modes of ex-

pressing degree. 7. How is degree of difference expressed? 8. What phrase is sometimes used in these constructions? 9. (a) State and illustrate the first additional kind of phrase. (b) The same with the second. 10. What is the office of all these phrases? 11. To what may this analysis be further extended? Illustrate by another example. Is this mode of analysis correct?

SENTENCES FOR PRACTICE.

- 1. My raft was now strong enough to bear any reasonable weight.
 - 2. This dog was the largest and fiercest of the four.
 - 3. That was the funniest sight of all.
 - 4. The king was no way prouder for all his great honors.
- 5. The old chief was far too wary to be caught by so cheap a device.
- 6. Younger by fifteen years, brother at once and son, he left my side.
- 7. The rescued traveler was not rich enough to pay any reward but thanks.
 - 8. The honor is little enough for the labor.
 - 9. He is richer by millions and more avaricious than rich.
- 10. Enough remains of glimmering light to guide the wanderer's steps aright.
- 11. No one thought the old miser could do less than give the boy a dollar.
- 12. The home of my childhood was miles and miles away from me now.
- 13. If we were base enough to desire it, it is now too late to retire from the contest.
 - 14. Your news is too good to be believed.
- 15. James is much the better scholar of the two; Charles, however, is ten years older.

- 16. His discourse was good enough, though it was long beyond all excuse.
- 17. The Ottawa warrior was full seven feet high and large in proportion.
- 18. Nothing was too mean for him to stoop to: no bribe was small enough for him to refuse.
- 19. The next station was twenty Norwegian miles distant, too far to reach on a night so bitterly cold.
- 20. We suddenly came upon a broad river, quite ten feet deep.

QUESTIONS.

1. Interpret the word strong; i.e., how strong is strong enough? Write the sentence with a participial noun in place of to bear. 2. What is this dog compared with? 3. What is that sight compared with? 4. To what degree was the king prouder? Does all here mean every one? 5. What does cheap modify? Why was he not to be caught, etc.? 6. Point out all the modifiers of he. What does at once modify? Do adverbs modify nouns? How much younger? 7. With what is rich compared? 8. With what is honor compared? 9. What does by millions denote? What are compared in this sentence? 10. Enough for what? What does of show the relation between? 11. What are compared here? Supply an omitted connective. Is this connective necessary? When may a connective be omitted? 12. Is the distance expressed by away definite or indefinite? 13. What does to desire modify? What does the first it stand for? the second? 14. Change to be believed to a preposition and object. 15. What does however modify? In what two respects are James and Charles compared? 16. What does beyond all excuse modify? How good was the discourse? 17. How high was the warrior? How large? 18. What is the object of for? What kind of object is it? 19. What degree of comparison is next? What degree of comparison is bitterly cold? 20. How broad is the river? how deep?

LESSON LI.

GENERAL REVIEW OF THE LAST SIX LESSONS.

QUESTIONS.

1. What do causal clauses denote? 2. What are the principal connectives of these clauses? 3. Find a sentence illustrating the use of each. 4. Tell the meaning of each. [Consult, on such questions, a dictionary, or complete grammar.] 5. What are illatives? 6. How does an illative clause differ from a causal one? 7. In it must be done, because it is right, what is the relation of the first clause to the second? 8. Are causal clauses subordinate? 9. What is the principal final conjunction? 10. Be silent that you may hear; what does the that-clause denote? 11. When that denotes result, what other words are used with it? 12. Is there any idea of cause or reason in clauses denoting result? 13. Find three sentences illustrating each use of that as a final conjunction. 14. What is the principal conditional conjunction? 15. What is the negative form? 16. Does, If I had been there I would have done it, express any doubt? 17. Does, If I am there I will do it, assert something conditional or unconditional? 18. Do it, if you dare; on what is doing contingent? 19. What is the signification of this conjunction? 20. Find sentences illustrating as many varieties of suppositions as you can. 21. In though he was rich, etc., what is the force of though? 22. Explain the relation of each clause to the others, in the following: Though I give my body to be burned and have not charity, I am nothing. 23. Is there any other concessive conjunction? 24. Find, out of this book, five sentences, each containing a concessive clause. 25. Change these clauses to conditional ones, and tell what difference of meaning the change makes. 26. What is the principal term to denote comparison of equality? 27. Comparison of inequality? 28. How do comparative clauses express qualities, etc.? 29. Explain in full the relation

of clauses in, As a man thinketh, so is he. 30. Also in this: My punishment is greater than I can bear. 31. What are compared in this? It is good enough for you. 32. In, It is too good to eat, purse to eat. 33. In, He is ten years older, purse years. 34. Expand the following to two full clauses: It is easier to form good resolutions than to keep them. 35. Find ten sentences containing clauses or phrases of comparison.

SENTENCES FOR PRACTICE.

The following sentences contain illustrations of some of the clauses just considered, together with others previously given. Of course, it would be impossible to find a succession of sentences in a paragraph illustrating a certain series of grammatical elements in the order in which they have been presented.

Let the sentences be analyzed in full, and let the questions following be multiplied and extended.

- 1. Of all the species of pedants which I have mentioned, the book pedant is much the most tolerable.
- 2. He has an exercised understanding, and a head which is full, though it is confused.
- 3. A man who converses with him may often receive from him hints of things that are worth knowing, though they are of little use to the owner.
- 4. The worst kinds of pedants among learned men are such as are naturally endowed with a very small share of common sense.
- 5. Shallow pedants cry up one another much more than they do men of solid and useful learning.
- 6. These islands that lie so *fresh* and green before thee and with which the whole face of the ocean *is spotted*, as far as thou canst see, are *more* in number *than* the sands on the sea-shore.

- 7. What recked the chieftain if he stood On Highland heath, or Holyrood?
- He rights such wrong where it is given, 8. If it were in the court of heaven.
- 9. Although he had never been in an asylum any more than he had been in war, he was almost as perfect a drunkard as he was a soldier.
- 10. It seemed to the boy that affairs would go more smoothly than they had ever yet gone, if everybody would live in this simple fashion.

QUESTIONS.

1. What are compared in this sentence? What does much modify? Define pedant and species. 2. What two things has he? How is the head described? What two qualities are contrasted? 8. What man may receive, etc.? To what is the though-clause opposed? 4. Who are the worst pedants? Are they the worst of all pedants? Can endowed be followed by any preposition but with? Is common compared? 5. Does cry up express more than one idea? Compare all the adjectives and give the opposite of each. 6. What islands are these islands? What is the simple predicate of the that-clause? What is the simple predicate of islands? Change more in number to an adjective. 7. Meaning of recked. Is if the right conjunction here? What is another form of chieftain? 8. What part of speech is rights? What is the more common form? Can though be substituted for if, without change of meaning? 9. What comparison of inequality here? of equality? What does almost modify? Is perfect compared? 10. What is the subject of seemed? More smoothly than what? On what condition? If everybody would live how?

If more practice is wanted at this point, the sentences in Lesson XXXIV may be used.

LESSON LII.

COMPOUND SENTENCES.

- 1. Compound sentences have been defined as those which contain two or more coördinate propositions. The propositions, as such, should be compounded, to make the sentence compound.
- 2. They are composed, really, of two or more sentences, generally, but not always, connected by conjunctions, and are of great variety of form and structure. It is understood that the proposition, with or without added parts, as the case may be, constitutes a sentence; and, in general, any two or more sentences may be joined into one compound one.
- 3. In particular: two or more simple sentences may be joined; as, The fear of the Lord is the beginning of wisdom and to depart from evil is understanding: also, two or more partially compound sentences; as, You and I must go or else delay and inconvenience to all concerned will follow: also, a simple and a complex sentence; as, This will do now, but you must do better in the future if you wish to succeed: a partially compound and a complex, or a simple sentence; as, James and Charles will go now and you will follow when it is pleasant, or you will follow at your convenience: and so on, in every variety of combination.
- 4. The sentence of some form is the constituent factor of compound sentences.
- 5. Sometimes a compound sentence is composed of two compound sentences; that is, a sentence should first be resolved into compound sentences, and these again into sim-

ple or other sentences. An example is given in sentence 7 below and also in 10. For these sentences it is as well to write in the formula both the punctuation mark and the conjunction when one occurs.

- 6. Sometimes, as in the case of subordinate compound elements, several sentences may be connected into one by a conjunction between the last two. Several sentences, also, may follow each other without any grammatical connective. These might as well be written as separate sentences, with a full stop after each. Write them in the formulas, however, as they are, indicating the want of conjunctions by using the punctuation marks which separate them in the text. The conjunctions which make compound sentences are and, but, or.
- 7. The steps in analyzing compound sentences are these:
 (1) separate the whole structure into sentences, describing each as simple, complex, etc.: (2) separate each of these sentences into its component elements, as heretofore. A sentence of any kind which makes a factor of a compound sentence is indicated in the formula by a capital letter, with or without clauses attached to it.

QUESTIONS.

1. What are compound sentences? What must be compounded to make them? 2. Of what, really, are they composed? What kind of sentences may be joined to make them? 3. Give several specifications with examples. 4. What is the constituent factor of a compound sentence? 5. Of what, further, is such a sentence made up? Give an example. 6. How may several sentences be joined into a compound one? How are they sometimes found? What are the conjunctions used? 7. Give the steps in analyzing compound sentences.

SENTENCES FOR PRACTICE.

- 1. In this march we traversed almost the whole circuit of the hills around Jerusalem and I then had the opportunity that I had longed for, to see the force with which we were contending.
 - 2. The troops were admirably armed: there was nothing for superfluity, but those who conceived the system knew the value of show, and the equipment of the legions was superb.

FORMULA. A: $B + C(b^1) C + D$.

- 3. The helmets and swords were frequently inlaid with the precious metals, and the superior officers rode richly-dressed chargers.
- 4. The common soldier was proud of the brightness of his shield and helmet: on duty both were covered; but on their festivals the most cheering moment was that when the order was given to uncase their arms.
- 5. The first decided blow of the war was given; I had incurred the full wrath of Rome: the trench between me and forgiveness was impassable; and I felt a stern delight in the conviction that hope of truce or pardon was at an end; the seizure of the fort was a defiance of the whole power of the empire.
- 6. It had the higher importance of a triumph at a moment when the courageous are perplexed by doubt and the timid watch their opportunity to raise the cry of ill-fortune.
 - 7. These thoughts banished rest from my pillow and I passed day and night in a feverish exaltation of mind; but if I should compute my few periods of happiness, one of them would be those days when I could neither eat nor sleep,

and another would be the week of victory which I am now to relate.

FORMULA. A + B: +
$$a^2$$
 < C > b^2_+ + D > c^1 .

- 8. There was kindness under the roof of Nero and a liberal hand covered the table in my cell.
- 9. The hours passed heavily along, but they passed a and I was watching the last rays of my last sun, when I suddenly perceived a cloud rise in the direction of Rome.
- 10. It grew broader as I gazed; the whole mass of cloud became crimson; the sun went down and another sun seemed to have risen in its stead.

QUESTIONS.

1. Is in this march local or temporal? What did we traverse? What hills? What opportunity had I longed for? How many ideas in longed for? What force? 2. Write the second proposition with adjective attribute. Meaning of superfluity, equipment, superb? 3. What adverbs in the sentence? What adjectives? Meaning of inlaid, chargers? 4. How many sentences in this? What are the simple predicates? Both what? What order? 5. Is decided compared? is full? What is the noun corresponding with decided? full? stern? whole? What is the adjective form of wrath? forgiveness? delight? hope? defiance? power? 6. What had? How many clauses modify moment? They are when-cliuses, and moment denotes time; are these clauses adverbial? 7. What did these thoughts banish? Whence? What did I pass? how? Does if express something that did or did not take place? What would one period be? another? 8. Does there denote place? What is the proof of the kindness? 9. What happened while I was watching? Find a double object. 10. What grew broader? When? What is the simple subject of the second proposition?

LESSON LIII.

PARTICIPIAL ELEMENTS.

- 1. THE participle, in its various uses, makes the basis of a large number of grammatical elements, and must now be considered.
- 2. The participle is a form of the verb and is called by some a mode. The main distinction between this form and those which are usually called modes is that the asserting word is wanting in the participle and it therefore assumes the action or state denoted by the verb.

The uses of the participle in sentences are these:

- 3. It is used, first, as a noun. As such it is the name of a state or action, and may be the subject or attribute of a proposition, or the object of a verb or preposition. For example: Lying is wrong. Lying is deceiving. We should avoid lying. He is accused of lying.
- 4. It is used, second, as a descriptive term. The assumed action or state is used as a property or quality of objects and the participle becomes adjective in its use. For example: The time of *singing* birds, the *beloved* disciple, the *shorn* lamb, etc.
- 5. The participle used as a noun may take any modification of a noun, and that used as an adjective any modifications of an adjective; at the same time, the participle, not having lost its verbal nature, may take any modifications which the verb allows. For example: The merry singing of the birds, the greatly beloved disciple, singing for pleasure, deceiving one's friends, etc.

NOTE.—These uses of the participle will have been found occasion ally in the sentences already given; they are presented formally now, that all the uses of the participle may be given at one view.

6. It is used, third, as a participle in various ways.

To understand this use of participial elements it is necessary to know how propositions are abridged.

7. Remembering that propositions consist of three distinct parts and that two propositions in one sentence are joined by some connective, the inquiry is, how two propositions can be abridged to one, or how the assertion of one can be changed to an assumption, and so the sentence be made simpler in grammatical structure.

NOTE.—Abridging, as applied to sentences, generally means reducing the number of propositions.

- (a) Take for illustration the complex sentence, When but half of our heavy task was done, the bell tolled the hour for retiring; if the copula was is changed to the participle being and the connective when is omitted, the sentence becomes, But half of our heavy task being done, the bell, etc. In this example the first assertion becomes an assumption; there is no longer any need of the connective between prepositions, as one of them has vanished, and the subjects of each remain unchanged.
- (b) Again; from the compound sentence, The rain was pouring down and we could not proceed, by dropping the copula and the connective the sentence is reduced to a simple one with a participial element preceding; thus, the rain pouring down, we could not proceed.
- (c) Again; from the partially compound sentence, We were not able to delay longer and set forth immediately, dropping the copula and connective as before, and retaining

the subject with the remaining verb, the sentence becomes simple with a participial modifier of the subject; thus, not being able to remain longer, we set forth immediately.

- 8. To recapitulate; (1) reducing the two propositions of a complex sentence to one by dropping the copula of one and the connective, leaves a noun and participle without grammatical relation with the rest of the sentence.
- (2) The same is true of a compound sentence whose verbs have different subjects.
- (3) Reducing two verbs with the same subjects by omitting one copula and the connective and transferring the subject to the remaining verb leaves a participial modifier of that subject.
- 9. In general; omitting copula—that is, changing the verb to a participle—and connective, makes an independent element, and omitting copula, connective and a subject makes a participial modifier of some noun.

The principal offices of participial elements in which the participle as such is found are these:

- 10. The participle with a noun—its subject—are independent of—that is, have no formal grammatical relation with—the rest of the sentence. These elements denote (a) the time of an action; as, the sun having arisen, we started; (b) the cause or reason of an action; as, the horses being tired, we halted for the night; (c) the condition of an action; as, the weather being favorable, we shall go.
- 11. The participle without a subject is an adjective modifier, generally of the subject of the sentence; as, cheering the general, we passed on. These may be said to denote an action preliminary to the principal action of the sentence.
- 12. A third use of participles is found in such sentences as, He came laughing, he stood reading a book. These do not

express manner of action of the principal verb, nor are they strictly modifiers of the subject. They seem rather to denote an additional action accompanying the principal action, and are called participles of concomitant action.

- 13. To recapitulate; participial elements with subjects are used to denote the time, cause, etc., of the principal action of the sentence; without distinct subjects, to denote preliminary action, and to denote an action concomitant with the principal action.
- 14. The participle in all these cases may take any modifier which its verbal nature allows.
- 15. The participle with its noun and any added words used as 10 above has no grammatical connection with the sentence, and may be designated in the diagram by the letter I, the symbol for independent elements. (See lesson LV.) The participle having no subject, with its modifiers, constitutes an adjective element, and needs no special designation in the diagram.

The participle of concomitant action may be so named in connection with the verb in the analysis of the clause in which it stands. It is not strictly a modifier of either part; say that the verb is accompanied by this participle.

QUESTIONS.

1. What is the use of the participle? 2. What is the participle? How does it differ from the verb? 3. Give its use as a noun, with examples. 4. Give its use as an adjective, with examples. 5. How may it be modified when used in these ways? 6. How, besides, is it used? What must be understood preliminary to this? 7. What is the inquiry here? What is meant by abridging in grammar? (a) Give the first illustration. (b) Give the second illustration. (c) Give the third illustration. 8. Recapitulate these ways of abridgment. 9. State the general result of abridgment, and find at least

five sentences in illustration. 10. Give the first use of participial elements, with specifications and examples. 11. Give the second. 12. Give the third. 13. Recapitulate the three and find three examples. 14. How may the participle in these elements be modified? 15. What is the office of each of these three in sentences?

SENTENCES FOR PRACTICE, CONTAINING PARTI-CIPIAL AND OTHER ELEMENTS.

- The moon above the eastern wood Shone at its full; the hill-range stood Transfigured in the silver flood, Its blown snows flashing cold and keen.
- 2. Shut in from all the world without,
 We sat the clean-winged hearth about,
 Content to let the north wind roar
 In baffled rage at pane and door,
 While the red logs before us beat
 The frost-line back with tropic heat.
- 3. All day the gusty north-wind bore
 The loosening drift its breath before;
 Low circling round its southern zone
 The sun through dazzling snow-mist shone.
- 4. Meanwhile we did our nightly chores,
 Brought in the wood from out of doors,
 Littered the stalls, and from the mows
 Raked down the herd's grass for the cows
 Heard the horse whinnying for his corn;
 And sharply clashing horn on horn,
 Impatient down the stanchion rows
 The cattle shake their walnut bows;
 While peering from his early perch
 Upon the scaffold's pole of birch,

The cock his crested helmet bent And down his querulous challenge sent.

- We saw the half-buried oxen go,
 Shaking the snow from heads uptost,
 Their straining nostrils white with frost.
- 6. The cavalcade came prancing along the road, with a great clattering of hoofs and a mighty cloud of dust, which rose up so dense and high that the visage of the mountain-side was completely hidden from Ernest's view.
- 7. The years hurried *onward*, treading in their haste on one *another's* heels.
- 8. The hardy mariners, knowing they had done all in the power of man to do, stood watching the effect of this action.
- 9. A single streak of dark billows could be seen running into this chaos of water.
- 7 10. He felt that mute appeal of tears,
 And, starting with an angry frown
 Hushed all the wicked murmurs down.

QUESTIONS.

1. What is the first simple predicate? Is there any participle of concomitant action? Any independent noun and participle? Are cold and keen adjectives? What silver flood? Give the adjectives, with their class. 2. What does without modify? What one word may be substituted for shut in? Find a double object. Find two compound words and tell how each is made up. Why red logs? Give all the adjectives, and words used as such. What is the simple predicate of the while-clause? 3. What participial adjectives in the sentence? Explain the compound words. 4. Give the principal parts of each verb. Define chores, littered, mows, herd's grass, whinnying, stanchion, bows, peering, crested, querulous. Select the adjectives, the adjective phrases, the participles which modify nouns. Is clashing horn independent, or a modifier of cattle? Is cuttle shake, etc., an independent proposition or a double object dependent on heard?

5. Find in the sentence the following: a double object, a participial modifier of a noun, an absolute participial element. What does shaking modify? etc., etc.

LESSON LIV.

SOME OTHER FORMS OF ABRIDGMENT.

ABRIDGMENT of propositions, resulting in dependent or independent participial clauses, was presented in the last lesson; some other forms of abridgment will complete the topic in this lesson.

- 1. Substantive clauses introduced by that are changed to substantive phrases.
- (a.) For example: Subject clause, That he was wrong is evident. Dropping the connective and changing the copula to a participle and putting the subject into grammatical relation with the words as they now stand by changing it to the possessive case, the sentence becomes His having been wrong is evident.
- (b.) The same is true of that-clauses used as attributes; as, My reason is that he deceives me = My reason is his deceiving me.
- (c.) That-clauses are sometimes abridged to a preposition followed by a double object; as, That James should lie is surprising = For James to lie is surprising. If the subject is an indefinite or general one, the infinitive mode without a subject may be used in the abridgment; That one should lie is surprising = To lie is surprising.
- (d.) That-clauses used as objects direct or indirect, or those of mere verbal completion; as, he told me that he was

intending to go = of his intending to go. He believed that the man was telling the truth = in the man's telling the truth. He was informed that the messenger had arrived = of the messenger's arrival. He was aware that it was late = of its being late.

- (e.) Sometimes the objective clause is abridged to the form of a double object; as, I believe that it is he = it to be him. When the subject of both clauses is the same, it is shortened to a simple infinitive; as, I wish that I might go = I wish to go.
- 2. Clauses which modify nouns; as, the news that he had arrived surprised me = the news of his arrival, etc. The reason that (or why) I did so = the reason of my doing so.
- 3. Clauses denoting purpose are abridged, or rather changed to, infinitives denoting purpose; as, he went that he might improve his health = to improve his health, or, in order to, etc.
- 4. Other clauses admit this form of abridgment; as, The question whether we shall go, = the question of our going. We were delayed because he did not come = because of, by reason of, his not coming.
- 5. Still another form of abridgment is the simple omission of subject and copula; as, Though he was young, he was wise, may be written, Though young, he was wise. This, however, is best analyzed by supplying the omitted parts, because they obviously make the construction which is intended by the writer of such sentences.
- 6. There are, then, three principal forms of abridgment:
 (a) those which, omitting the connective and the copula, leave a participial element, as in the preceding lesson; (b) those which omit the connective, change the verb to some form of verbal noun, and change the subject to the posses-

sive case; (c) those which change the connective to a preposition, the verb to a verbal noun, and the subject to the possessive. For example: (a) when shame is lost, all virtue is lost = shame being lost, etc., or, the foreman repeated his orders and withdrew = the foreman, having repeated his orders, withdrew; (b) that you are wrong is clear = your being wrong is clear; (c) I did not know that he is here = of his being here.

The abridgments of this lesson only reduce propositions to the form of elements already presented, and call for no additional symbol in the notation used.

NOTE.—Bear in mind that if the subjects of the two predicates are the same, one of them is omitted in the abridgment.

QUESTIONS.

1. To what are substantive clauses introduced by that changed?
(a) How are subject-clauses abridged? Attributive-clauses? (c) To what other form are that-clauses sometimes abridged? (d and e) How are that-clauses used as objects abridged? 2. How are clauses which modify nouns changed? 4. How are clauses of purpose changed? 5. What is another form of abridgment? 6. Recapitulate the three principal forms of abridgment, with examples.

SENTENCES FOR PRACTICE.

In the following sentences, without analyzing, abridge all the clauses which admit such treatment, and expand the phrases which can be expanded into propositions, explaining in full all changes made.

- 1. I wondered why it was not done.
- 2. Aladdin now requested that he might be permitted to wait on the princess.
- 3. Tell him that on these conditions I am ready to receive him.
 - 4. That you have wronged me doth appear in this.

- 5. He had been told that he might safely meddle with anything in the garden. [Can the that-clause be abridged here?]
- 6. We do not need to be taught the lesson that a restless mind is not a reliable mind. [Can this be abridged?]
 - 7. I had not learned of your promotion.
 - 8. I am not aware that there is such a place.
 - 9. The man who is wise will shun evil.
 - 10. I do not wish to hear any more of your being sorry.
 - 11. Tell me not that life is an empty dream.
 - 12. Who would have thought that it was he?
 - 13. They threw down their guns and hastily retreated.
- 14. The next day, the provisions being all gone, Aladdin took one of the plates and went to a silversmith that he might sell it.
- 15. The merchant thinking the owner ignorant of its value offered a small sum for it.
- 16. Aladdin thought that he had made a good bargain. [Can this be abridged?]
- 17. When the money was spent, Aladdin called the lamp to his aid.
 - 18. I admit that my wish is very bold.
- 19. She was slow to do so, being very anxious to obtain pardon first.
- 20. Aladdin assured her of his readiness to give his son to her daughter in marriage.
 - 21. I could not doubt that you are the man.
 - 22. I could not doubt that you are he.
- 23. I was under some apprehension that my provisions might be devoured on shore.
- 24. I made a tent with some poles which I cut for the purpose.
 - 25. Do not admit that it is impossible.

LESSON LV.

INDEPENDENT ELEMENTS.

- 1. It was said in a former lesson that all parts of sentences are modifiers of either subject or predicate. Two modifications of this general statement must be made.
- 2. The first is that some words or groups of words have no grammatical connection with any other part of the sentence, and are, therefore, independent. By this is not meant that they contribute nothing to the sentence, but that, while the words composing them have grammatical relations among themselves, the basis of the element has no connection with any part of the sentence. For example: in, my question having been at length answered to my satisfaction, I will proceed, every word of the participial element finds its syntax within the element except question, the principal term; that has no syntax: all the words, then, grouped about it have, as a whole, no syntax: the element is independent of the sentence.

There are four specifications of this element.

- 3. (a.) The noun and participle in abridged constructions like the preceding. These have already been sufficiently considered.
- 4. (b.) Words of direct address, with what is added to them; for example: O thou that hearest prayer, to thee shall all flesh come; My dear and honored friend, etc. In these all the other words are grouped about thou and friend, but these have no syntax, unless calling them independent case, gives them a syntax. This phrase, like that of independent

elements, is only an accommodation of terms. They are independent of the rest of the sentence, and are called elements only for convenience.

- 5. (c.) Exclamations and words directly connected with them; for example: O everlasting shame! that I should live to see an hour like this! As these stand, shame has no syntax and that connects nothing; the entire expressions are grammatically independent of the sentences to which they might be attached. They are, of course, abridged expressions which might be expanded, but the common and simpler disposal of them is to regard them as independent.
- 6. (d.) Expressions purposely left disconnected from the rest of the sentence, or dropped from their place because the structure of the sentence is, in the progress of its composition, changed from its original intention. For example: The fathers, where are they? I will no longer—but why do I repeat this?
- 7. These elements or parts of sentences are numerous and important enough to be indicated in the formulas. Let the letter I, separated from the rest of the formula by commas, represent these independent elements, whether they contain much or little. If a word of direct address or other word is modified by a clause, indicate it in the usual way, as in the first sentence below.

QUESTIONS.

1. To what, according to former statements, are parts of sentences added? How many modifications of this? 2. What is the first? Illustrate by examples. 3. In the case of a noun and a participle, together independent of other words, which of the two has no syntax? 4. What is the second? Illustrate by examples. 5. What is the third? Illustrate by examples. 6. What is the fourth? Illustrate by examples. 7. How may these be represented in the formulas?

SENTENCES FOR PRACTICE.

Our fathers' God! from out whose hand
 The centuries fall like grains of sand,
 We meet to-day, united, free,
 And loyal to our land and thee.

FORMULA. $I > a^1$, A.

- 2. What! poison! has the villain escaped me? = I, I, A.
- 3. O heaven! in this cruel grasp was the key of thy dungeon, my child!
- 4. I gazed round the armory; there was no door and yet this man ———.

FORMULA. A; B+I.

5. The obstacle once removed, we saw the source of the light—spectacle of horror! the great prison of Rome was on fire.

FORMULA. I, A, I, B.

- 6. Good evening; can you give a traveler a night's lodging?
 - 7. Who are you, my strangely gifted guest?
 - 8. Huzza for old Stony Phiz! there he comes.
 - 9. Silence all! we shall soon know our fate.
 - Thou, too, sail on, O Ship of State!
 Sail on, O Union, strong and great!
 - 11. Hail, holy light, offspring of heav'n first-born!
 - 12. Ah Eloquence! thou wast undone,
 Wast from thy native country driven,
 When tyranny eclipsed the sun
 And blotted out the stars of heaven.

LESSON LVI.

SENTENCE ELEMENTS.

1. The second modification alluded to in the last lesson is this: sometimes a word, or a group of words, modifies the meaning, not of any part of a sentence, but of the sentence as a whole. They differ from independent elements in that they give a different shade to the assertion of the sentence, while the former express something preliminary or additional or incomplete. They may for this reason be called sentence modifiers or elements.

The following are the principal specifications:

- 2. (a) Certain adverbs or phrases, commonly called modal adverbs, or adverbs which modify the manner of assertion rather than the manner of action; as, verily, truly, without doubt, etc. These are generally words of certainty or doubt. For example: Verily, verily, I say unto you. This is, certainly, the best course to take. These words modify the whole sentence, and not any one word or group of words in it.
- 3. (b) Certain adverbs whose use is rather logical than grammatical, serving to show a connection of thought between sentences or parts of sentences. For example; It is evident, then, that the prisoner is guilty. Now, faith is the substance of things hoped for. Nor, indeed, was his soldiership a matter of derision.

Under this head may come certain words used as auxiliary connectives, when they are not directly connected with any preceding sentence or part of sentence. For example; He was conscious, also, of a change. I beseech you, therefore, by all you hold dear.

- 4. (c) Certain words which generally serve to join a clause to the sentence, but sometimes do duty for the clause which it is not necessary to insert. For example; I will not, however, enter into this matter. You can't beat me, though. It does move, nevertheless.
- 5. (d) Expressions—generally prepositions and objects—which cannot be said to modify one part of a sentence more than another, but do change the tone of the whole statement. For example; I don't believe it, for all that. Between you and me, this was how it was. In spite of the absence of these two great men, the box in which the managers stood contained a great array of eloquent speakers.
- 6. (e) Certain expressions put before, or thrown in between, the parts of a sentence, to soften or to strengthen the statements, or to anticipate or prepare the way for what follows, etc. For example; This, to tell the truth at once, is what I came for. He was a man—sooth to say—who could not keep a shilling. He went on, as it were, from Dan to Beersheba. To begin at the beginning, my client was a poor farmer.
- 7. It is difficult oftentimes to distinguish these elements from others. It will generally be a matter of individual judgment whether a certain group of words modifies this or that. No absolute or general test can be given. The question is, does it seem—to you—to go more naturally with this part or that part, or with the whole of it, or with none. It must not be the habit to assign a group of words to this head to save close inspection of it; it must be assigned here only after such inspection. Not all parts separated by dashes, for example, must, by that sign, be taken for sentence

elements; such parts are often easily recognized as some other element.

8. It is necessary that these elements should have some symbol; let them be designated by the letter S enclosed in a parenthesis, (S). They can then be separated into their constituent parts, if they are phrases or propositions, as other elements are.

QUESTIONS.

1. What is the second modification alluded to? What is a sentence-element? 2. What is the first specification, with illustrations?

3. What is the second? Give examples of this use of words, sometimes used as auxiliary connectives. 4. Give the next specification.

5. Give the next. 6. What other form of this element? 7. How shall it be determined whether a given element belongs to the sentence? 8. How may these elements be written in the formulas?

SENTENCES FOR PRACTICE.

Ask carefully about each of the sentences following, whether any sentence-element is in it. The point will be to distinguish on the one hand, between these and independent elements, and on the other, between these and modifiers of some distinct part of the sentence.

- 1. On the whole, I rather think I succeeded in astonishing both.
- 2. I remember their looks of amazement—for they had never seen anything of the sort in all their lives—as I swept to and fro in the magnificent robes.
 - 3. At any rate, they said nothing to the contrary.
- 4. To me—so deficient was I in rhetorical taste—it sounded like a crash of broken crockery.

- 5. The master of Ravenswood cannot, I am sure, object to your presence.
 - 6. But, in truth, there was small cause for joy.
 - 7. Peradventure, my gray hairs will turn away wrath.
- 8. All the more, however, for this amiable tenderness do we need the counterpoise of a strong sense of justice.
 - 9. Why, this is all wrong.
- 10. Besides all other reason for gladness, we now heard of a great victory over the Indians.
 - 11. To her great surprise, he soon entered the room.
- 12. He was, by the acknowledgment of all, the best speaker in the house.
 - 13. I, for my part, will not consent to this.
 - 14. For aught I know, it may all be true.
- 15. His voice, from being weak and tremulous, soon became full and firm.

LESSON LVII.

USES OF THE WORD THAT IN SENTENCES.

THE great variety of uses of the words that and as will be better understood by being presented at one view.

- 1. That is, primarily, a demonstrative word; i.e., it accompanies the pointing out of something with the finger. With this general meaning it is used:
- 2. As a simple definitive adjective, or as—as some grammars name it—a demonstrative adjective pronoun; as, I want that book, not this.
 - 3. In this use it may either accompany its noun, or repre-

sent it; as, that book is mine, or that [book, anything] is mine. In the former case it is used as an adjective; in the latter as a pro-noun; hence it is called by some a pronominal adjective, or an adjective which may take the place of a noun.

- 4. As a relative pronoun, representing a preceding noun to which it refers; as, lend me the book that you promised.
- 5. As a pro-sentence, or sentence-article, standing before a sentence and with it making a clause used as a constituent part of a sentence. The clause so formed may be substantive, adjective, or adverbial in its use. For example; You must prove that—you are right. That—he is guilty is obvious.
- 6. Notice that the structure of all these clauses is the same, whatever their office, namely, the word that and a proposition; they are named from their doing the office of noun, adjective, or adverb.
- 7. Notice carefully that the use of this word before a proposition is essentially the same as the use of the before a noun. It should be called a *sentence-article*; it is generally called an introductory connective.
- 8. In its adjective and adverbial uses it corresponds with the, or some word of quality, degree, etc.; as, lend me the book that I want; he was such a liar that no one believed him; he went away [to the end] that he might avoid, etc.
- 9. That is used, then, as an adjective, a pronoun, a relative, and a sentence-article introducing substantive, adjective, and adverbial clauses.

QUESTIONS.

1. What is that primarily? 2. How is it used first? 3. What two specifications of this use? 4. What is its next use? 5. What is its use as an article? 6. What is to be noticed about the struc-

ture of all that-clauses? 7. How does this compare with the common article? 8. With what does that correspond? 9. Give all the uses of that.

PRACTICE.

For practice of this lesson, find five illustrations of each use of the word.

LESSON LVIII.

USES OF THE WORD AS.

1. This word expresses, in general, the idea of comparison or correspondence. It is an adverb of indefinite meaning when it is joined to verb or adjective, and its meaning is made definite by the element following, introduced by the same word, which in this use—that is, as a clause connective—is a conjunction.

With this general meaning, it is used to denote:

- 2. General similarity or agreement of what is expressed in its own clause with what is asserted in the principal clause; as, he did as he chose; in which doing and choosing agree.
- 3. Correspondence of action, quality, etc., between the two assertions of the sentence; as, he can do as well as he chooses; in which ability to do and choosing to do correspond.
- 4. Correspondence with words of indefinite quality or description in the principal clause, chiefly *such* and *same*; as, he is *such* a student *as* we like to have in school; this is the *same* reason as I have given before. In these cases it is customary and convenient to consider as to be a relative pronoun. Really there is an ellipsis of a clause after as in

such sentences; thus, he is such a student as [those are whom] we like to have in school.

- 5. The part connected by as may be abridged to an infinitive phrase; thus, he behaved so as to convince us all = so that he convinced us all; his words were such as to alarm us = such that they alarmed us. In such constructions as connects the phrase instead of the clause.
- 6. Apposition; thus, he, as a friend of both parties gave this advice; I come to you as a friend; I appoint you as monitor.
- 7. As an index of examples or illustrations; in this way it is used in almost every paragraph of these lessons.
- 8. To recapitulate: as may be an adverb; a conjunction joining clauses of manner, etc., to a principal clause, those which compare one manner, etc., with another, and abridged propositions doing the same; a relative pronoun after such and same; an index of apposition; a sign of examples or illustrations following; a prefix or introduction of certain expressions difficult to classify, such as, he has always, as every one knows, etc.; a suspension bridge, as it is called; confined, as we are, to one point.

QUESTIONS.

1. What is the general idea of the word as? What part of speech is it? 2. What is the first specification? 3. The next one given? 4. What is its use after such and same? 5. What may the as-clause become? What does as then connect? 6. Give examples of its use to show apposition. 7. What further use has it? 8. Recapitulate these uses. Give examples difficult of classification.

PRACTICE.

For practice find illustrations of each of these uses.

LESSON LIX.

QUOTATIONS.

- 1. QUOTATIONS are of two kinds, direct and indirect. The former quote the exact words of speaker or writer, the latter their substance. All quotations follow verbs of saying.
- 2. Indirect quotations are prefaced by the word that; direct quotations are joined to the verb directly: both are generally direct objects of the verb with which they are related, though either may be the subject or attribute.
- 3. Examples: He said, "I will go," quotes directly. He said that he would go, quotes indirectly. My father said to me, "You will do as I tell you," is changed, in indirect quotation, to, My father said that I should do as he told me.
- 4. Notice that the change is made by introducing the connective that and making necessary modifications of persons, modes, and tenses.
- 5. Indirect quotations make substantive clauses and, therefore, complex sentences, and need no special discussion, and require no change in the notation used.
- 6. Direct quotations are entire sentences, and they may be simple, complex, or compound, in themselves.
- 7. The peculiarity of direct quotations is, that they are sentences within sentences. He declared, "I will keep my word," is a sentence as a whole; the quotation is a sentence by itself, coming into the entire sentence without the aid or need of a conjunction. The entire sentence cannot be simple, because it contains two propositions. It cannot be either compound or complex—unless the signification of

these terms is extended—for the propositions are not connected by either coördinate or subordinate connectives.

8. These sentences, then, are not to be classed with any heretofore considered. They want a name, and a symbol in the notation. They may be called simple or complex sentences—as they may be apart from this element—containing a quotation. The quotation will, by this naming, be taken as a sentence to be described and analyzed by itself. Quoted objects, if sentences, may be indicated by putting the usual notation for representing that kind of sentence into quotation marks and the sign of subordination > between it and the proposition which it follows, without any connective word. Subjects or attributes may be indicated by the same notation placed before or after the letter standing for the rest of the sentence, without any sign of connection.

Notice that these quotations follow a verb of saying, but that verb is not always the verb to say. Any verb which implies saying may take a direct quotation as its object; as, he declared, "I will do it;" he asked, "Where are you going;" he demanded, "what will you give;" he promised, "I will do it all."

QUESTIONS.

1. What two kinds of quotations? How do they differ? 2. What is the office and connection of each? 3. Give examples. 4. How is the change made? 5. What kind of clauses do indirect quotations make? What kind of sentences, then? 6. What are direct quotations? 7. What is the peculiarity of sentences containing them? Why are they not simple? 8. What name may be given to them? How may they be expressed in the formulas?

Besides analyzing the following sentences in full, let the direct quotations be changed to indirect in all cases which admit of such change.

SENTENCES FOR PRACTICE.

1. "All is going on well," said one of the readers, as I entered the room.

FORMULA. "A" $< B > a^2$.

- 2. I remarked that peace was the first wish of my heart, but that no people could be reproached with contending too boldly for freedom.
 - 3. "The sentiment is Roman," was the reply = "A" B.
- > 4. "Your dejection is natural enough," said the emperor,
- "as you have so lately lost your brother" = "A" < (B) > "as."
- 5. I was often ready to ask, "Can man be unhappy in the midst of these things?"
- 6. "Little I ever thought," sighed the old steward, "of seeing that sight." = "A" < (B) > "A."
- 7. "There is an attack on either the enemy's camp or the city," I exclaimed to my companion.
- 8. "The tower contains a prisoner," said she, tremblingly,

 / "who must be saved this night; for to-morrow at day-break
 is his dreadful hour."
 - 9. "There," soliloquized he, as he ran his eye down the epistle, "I think some of you will be wiser for my labors."

FORMULA. "I" $< A > a^2 < "B."$

- 10. "In the name of all the wonders of the world," exclaimed he, "are you here too?"
- 11. "Three of them," I heard him mutter, as we gradually worked our way toward the light, "and perhaps more."
- 12. I started forward exclaiming, "If there is a man among you ready to stake his life for his country he will follow me instantly. = A > "a² $\stackrel{\text{if}}{<} B$."

- 13. "But has the assault been actually made? or is there force enough within to repel it?" interrupted I.
- 14. I involuntarily uttered aloud, "At last, I shall enter Jerusalem in triumph."
- 15. I heard Jubal shout in a loud voice, "Enter Jerusalem and you are undone."
- 16. The slave answered angrily, "No need to tell me; I know."
- 17. "See," exclaimed the prophet, "how I despise your threats."

LESSON LX.

SOME MISCELLANEOUS WORDS.

A FEW peculiar or difficult words are given in this lesson.

- 1. Like is either an adjective or an adverb, but not a preposition; the general meaning of the word is equal or similar.
- 2. In, He is *like* his brother, *like* is a predicate adjective, is *like* is the simple predicate of the sentence. In, He looks *like* his brother, it is the same.
- 2. In, He acts like his brother, like is an adverb modifying acts. The expanded expression might be written, He acts in a manner similar to that in which his brother acts. But like never stands at the head of a clause of manner; it is not English to say he acts like his brother does. When a clause follows like, the connective as is added; as, Like as a father pitieth his children, etc.
- 4. The difficulty, if any, is with the phrase following this word. The simplest way is to regard expressions such as

his brother above, as modifying like without a word to show their relation to it. They are nearer to being indirect objects than any other named element. The preposition to may be supplied, as is generally done, but it is not more necessary than in the case of deep, or high. The same is true of the word near.

- 5. Usage justifies a rule of Syntax like this: Words which denote likeness, nearness, dimension and price are joined directly to the words which they modify.
- 6. Worth is an adjective or a noun. As a qualifying adjective it takes the form worthy; as a predicate adjective without a preposition following, it takes the form worth, and is followed directly by a noun, according to the rule above; as, the book is worth a dollar.

Worth is a verb only in such expressions—now very uncommon—as we worth the day, in which the verb is in the imperative mode, and the noun is a dative, or indirect object, and the whole = we be to the day.

- 7. Like, near, and worth are not prepositions, because they express quality and not simple relation, as such words as of, in, by, etc., do.
- 8. Even and indeed, when not sentence-elements, are generally joined to the words which they directly accompany. Each has two meanings.
- 9. Even denotes, first, exactly; as, He said even so. Second, it expresses something unusual, or not to be expected; as, John even had his lesson; that is, this is an unusual occurrence.
- 10. Indeed denotes in fact, in truth, and in doing so makes a concession; as, This, indeed, is true = in point of fact, this is true and is granted as true.
 - 11. Indeed and even, in the senses given, are adverbs.

- 12. Only is used both as adjective and adverb. As an adjective it is used as a modifier, not as predicate; as, This is the only book I have = I have this book and no other.
- 13. As an adverb, the difficulty for the learner is to tell what it modifies; as, I give this *only* as an opinion = I give this for an opinion and for nothing more, or for an opinion merely. In this example it seems to modify the words as an opinion.
- 14. With the negative not, it often corresponds with the combination but also; as, He not only sings but also plays = he does not sing and this only, but he plays also. Not-only modifies sings and anticipates some other statement to follow; but connects the two clauses, and also, by pointing back to not-only assists in the connection.
- 15. Again: Not only is this which I have now said true, but also it is only half the truth I have to tell. Not only puts the whole complex first part of the sentence into correspondence with the second part introduced by but also.
- 16. How to parse only and also? Only, as an adverb, modifies its clause and anticipates the following clause; also is an auxiliary connective, helping to bind the two parts together by pointing back to the not-only-clause.
- 17. Just is another restrictive adverb, meaning exactly, precisely, and modifying whatever it restricts. For example; I want just one; I want just as many as you have; I did it just for fun; I will do just as I please.
 - 18. As if and as though.

These combinations of connectives imply an omission of a clause. For example; He acted as if he were insane, equals, when expanded, He acted as [he would act] if he were insane. He entered the room as though he was ignorant of all

charges = he entered the room as [he would do, on the concession or assumption that] though he was, etc. As, then, connects the omitted clause to the preceding, and if or though connects its clause with the omitted as-clause.

- 19. Two connectives belonging to clauses which are both expressed may come together in the sentence by the order of their arrangement, without implying an ellipsis; as, I hear that if you succeed you will not return.
- 20. It and there, are put before the verb, when for any reason the subject is put after it. For example, It is evident that you are wrong. It is only the formal subject; that is, it stands in the place of the subject, the latter being out of its natural place before the verb, and the verb not being allowed to stand alone. The real subject is the that-clause.

Again; There is good reason to believe. Here reason is the subject; there simply fills its place before the verb, which in these cases is an attributive verb, denoting existence. Of course, these words have no syntax; they are not signs of ideas or of relations, nor are they substitutes: they are mere stop-gaps. They are generally called expletives.

QUESTIONS.

1. What part of speech is like? What is it not? What is its general meaning? 2. What is its use in the sentences given? 3. Give a sentence in which it is an adverb. Is it ever the connective of an adverbial clause? What is joined with it to give it this office? 4. How shall the expressions following this word be disposed of? What other word has the same construction? 5. What rule of Syntax does usage justify? 6. What part of speech is worth? Give examples. Give and explain an example of its use as a verb. 7. Why are these words not prepositions? 8. To what are even and indeed joined? 9. What is the significations of even? 10. Of indeed?

11. What parts of speech are they in these uses? 12. What part of speech is only? Give an illustration of its use as an adjective.

18. The same, as an adverb. 14. With what does it correspond? Explain by examples. 15. Give a further illustration of its use.

16. How are only and also parsed in such sentences? 17. What is the meaning and use of just? 18. Explain the combinations of connectives as if and as though. 19. How, otherwise, may two other connectives come together? 20. What is the use of it and there in some sentences?

PRACTICE.

Notice, as you are reading, examples of the use of these words, and bring them into class from time to time. Do the same with any other peculiar word or construction you find.

LESSON LXI.

CLASSIFICATION OF SENTENCES COMPLETED.

NOTE.—The classification of sentences can now be completed. Four varieties were considered in Lesson XXXV, namely: Simple, Partially Compound, Compound, and Complex. To them are to be added these:

- 1. Sentences, of any structure otherwise, which contain a direct quotation.
- 2. (a.) Those whose parts are strongly united by a connective in each. For example: Though all seems lost, yet we must stand by the fort. Here are two propositions and two connectives, though, looking forward to the following clause, and yet, looking back to the preceding clause. Neither of these can, strictly, be taken by itself; each is

principal to the other, and each is dependent on the other; that is, they are mutually principal and dependent.

- (b.) Again: Either you are mistaken or I am deceived. Here are two clauses and two corresponding connectives, as is the case with those asserting proportionate equality.
- 3. The distinction between these and either compound or complex sentences is two-fold; (a) there are two connectives, one in each clause; (b) neither part of the sentence can be taken by itself.
- 4. These are clearly, then, a distinct kind of sentence in their structure, and from the fact that their clauses are more closely bound together than in other modes of structure, they may be called COMPACT.
- 5. These sentences are not numerous in ordinary writing. They may be expressed—taking the two given above—by doubling the formula thus: A > B A < B.
- 6. A remaining variety is the opposite of the last; namely, those whose component parts are entire sentences related in thought, but without any grammatical connective.

For example: It is sown a natural body; it is raised a spiritual body. Here are two propositions within one period, or full stop. They might be written as a compound sentence with a connective. But they stand together in the relation of contrast and need no connective, as they have none. As the preceding were called *compact*, these may be called *loose*.

7. It must be understood that they are not loose in the sense of wanting anything necessary to their proper structure, but only that they lack the grammatical sign of connection which usually stands between related propositions.

They will require no addition to the formulas.

8. There must be added, then, to the former classification

these three, which will exhaust all the ordinary kinds of sentences; viz., sentences containing a direct quotation, compact sentences, and loose sentences.

- 9. Some sentences have no strict grammatical structure. Their parts are so involved and complicated and are so full of anacoluths that they elude all regular process of analysis. They are not without meaning, but only loose and disjointed in form; the only thing the grammarian can do with them is to let them alone.
 - 10. Synopsis of kinds of sentences;
 - I. SIMPLE, containing one proposition.
 - II. PARTIALLY COMPOUND, containing a proposition with one or more of its parts compound.
 - III. COMPLEX, containing one or more principal and one or more subordinate clauses.
 - IV. COMPOUND, containing two or more entire sentences, with one connective, generally, between each two.

V. COMPACT, containing two parts corresponding or contrasted with each other by means of a connective in each.

VI. LOOSE, or two or more sentences not separated by a full stop, with no connective beween them.

VII. Sentences, of any structure otherwise, containing a direct quotation as constituent part of the whole.

VIII. Sentences not fully or rightly constructed, and so incapable of formal analysis.

as to structure of propositions, are

Sentences

QUESTIONS.

Note. What varieties of sentences have already been considered?

1. What is the first addition to be made?

2. What is the second? Give examples, and explain their structure. (b) What are other forms of these?

3. What is the distinction between these and complex and compound sentences?

4. What may they be named?

5. Are they numerous? How may they be expressed in the formula?

6. What is a remaining variety with examples? What may they be called? 7. In what sense are they loose? 8. What kinds, then, must be added to those already given? 9. What about the structure of some sentences? What can be done with them in grammatical analysis? 10. Write a synopsis of sentences as to structure, and find examples of each.

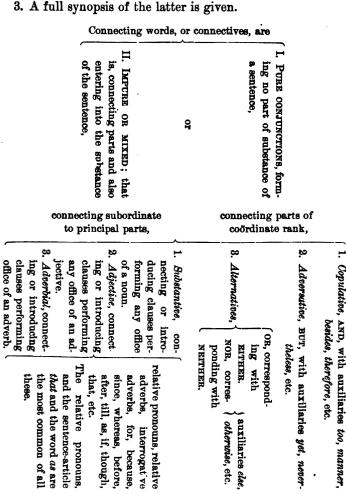
LESSON LXII.

GENERAL VIEW OF CONNECTIVES.

- 1. Connecting words are of very great importance in sentences. No sentence can be constructed without at least that which joins attribute and subject, and nearly every sentence, however simple in expression, contains others. The point to be constantly noticed is that ideas, whether expressed by words, by groups of words, or by propositions, are put into an infinite variety of relations by means of the words which join them together into sentences.
- 2. The varieties of connectives—using the term in its most general sense—are: (a) copulas and copulative verbs; (b) prepositions, and (c) connectives strictly so called. The general distinction among these, should be held clearly in mind; namely, that the first stand between attribute and subject to show the existence of one in the other; the second stand between a word or group of words following and some antecedent term on which the former depends, and show some relation between these two; the third connect words and elements of all kinds into sentences, some of them doing no other office than to connect, and so to put parts of sen-

tences into various relations with each other, and others, in addition to this, entering into the substance of the sentence as subject, object, etc.

3. A full synopsis of the latter is given.



QUESTIONS.

1. What is said of the importance of connecting words? What point is to be noticed? 2. What are their general varieties? What is the special use of the first? of the second? of the third? 3. Give a synopsis of the third.

LESSON LXIII.

SUMMARY OF GRAMMATICAL ELEMENTS.

1. ALL the elements of sentences have now been presented, and most of their varieties. It would never be quite safe to say that all possible modes of structure and combination have been exhibited. The sentence admits of endless variations, and scarcely any two are alike in all respects, unless they are manufactured for the purpose of being alike. But the essential forms have been given, and it remains only to present them at one view for reference.

The selections in the closing lessons are made with a view to presenting illustrations of all these elements and their combinations. Some of the elements and some forms of their combination occur, of course, much more frequently than others. It may be useful practice to find in books illustrations of as many varieties as possible before proceeding to this general analysis. It is better to find than to compose them, because they are then seen to be natural modes of expression, whereas those which are composed for illustration are likely to be more or less forced and without meaning.

Synopsis of grammatical elements.

2. A sentence must contain တ Ø copula. propositions one or more subject attribute, including and may contain as complements, having no grammodifying modifying the predimodifying the matical relation the sen cate or any part of subject or a with the sentence as the sentence admitnoun in any tence, a whole, ting it, relation, V. the sentence ment, jective ele-II. the adjective the indepen-V. the obelement, dent element, element, bial element, the adverwhich may be reflexive double, kindred attributive, indirect denoting denoting time, whole asserstances of the various circum purpose, result, comparison, cause, manner condition, etc., ty, situation, erc., expressed cause, tion, etc., verbal comple quality, identiaddressed person or thing beolately, etc., time place,

in the form of a word, a phrase, or a clause.

QUESTIONS.

1. What is said of grammatical elements? 2. Write out a synopsis of them.

GENERAL EXERCISES.

NOTE.

The extracts following are intended for general review as well as for practice in analysis and parsing. The analysis should be thorough and exhaustive, and the questions on the text should be extended and varied to meet the requirements of the class. Let the words and phrases in italics, at least. be parsed.

It will be useful to give here for reference a

SYNOPSIS OF SYMBOLS USED IN THE FORMULAS FOR SENTENCES.

- A, B, C, etc., represent independent propositions.
- a, b, c, etc., represent dependent propositions.
- 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, written above and at the right of a, b, c, or of elements written out in words, etc., indicate respectively, adjective, adverbial, direct objective, indirect objective, and double objective modifiers.

The vinculum, or bar over a succession of symbols, brings all under the same construction.

- (a) indicates an element included within the parts of another element.
 - [] includes parts not in the text.
- +, with the connective written above, indicates the connection of coördinate propositions.
- >, with the connective written above, indicates the connection of subordinate propositions with the principal.

A punctuation mark, such as is found in the text, supplies the place of a sign of connection.

That-A, or how-A, etc., indicates a proposition with a clause-subject.

A-that, or A-how, etc., the same with a clause-attribute.

Quoted objects may be represented by the usual formula for their sentences, included in quotation marks, the sign of subordination > being placed before the quotation, the preceding or following part of the sentence being indicated in the usual way.

Quoted subjects or attributes may be represented in the same way, when they are sentences; that is, write the formula for the sentence, enclose it in quotation marks, and place it before or after the symbols which represent the other part of the sentence.

Independent elements may be represented by the letter I, marked off by commas; if any contains a clause, it can be added in the usual way; as, $I > a^2$.

Sentence elements, if words or phrases, may be indicated by the letter S enclosed in a parenthesis; if a proposition or sentence, by the usual notation; in the latter case, this element may be separated from the rest of the formula by a dash or dashes.

Dependent clauses corresponding with other clauses may be indicated by writing the corresponding words over the sign; thus, > .

Compact sentences, generally consisting of two parts only, though each may be complex, may be indicated by doubling the formula; thus, A > B A < B, or, A > a > B > b A > a < B > b.

Compound subjects may be indicated by placing a small +

before the letter standing for the proposition, and compound attributes by the same sign after the letter; thus, + A, A +.

When it is necessary, on account of modifiers which need expression in the formula, to indicate the simple subjects or predicates which make a compound one, let subjects be indicated by $\overline{S+S}$, and predicates by $\overline{P+P}$; as, $\overline{S+S}$ A + B $\overline{P+P}$; or, $\overline{S>a+S}$ A + \overline{B} P + P > b, etc.

No confusion will arise from using this letter, S, for subjects and for sentence elements; in the first use, two or more will be joined by the sign +, and will also be connected by the bar over them, while the latter will always be distinguished from the other parts of the formula by the parenthesis.

If it is thought best, the *mode* of sentences may be represented by the numerals, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, prefixed to the formula of a sentence to indicate declarative, interrogative, imperative, exclamatory, and mixed sentences, respectively, this being the order in which they were presented. This symbol has not been used here, to avoid too many complications.

It is again repeated that the use of these symbols is optional with the teacher. He may use his own, or these, or none; the substance of the analysis is not affected in any case. They may be convenient; they are not essential.

LESSON LXIV.

THE farmer sat in his easy chair,
 Smoking his pipe of clay,
 While his hale old wife, with busy care,
 Was clearing the dinner away;

A sweet little girl with fine blue eyes, On her grandfather's knee was catching flies.

- The old man laid his hand on her head,

 With a tear on his wrinkled face;

 He thought how often her mother—dead—

 Had sat in the self-same place;

 And the tear stole down from his half-shut eye;

 "Don't smoke," said the child; "how it makes you cry."
- 3. The house-dog lay stretched out on the floor,
 Where the shade after noon used to steal;
 The busy old wife by the open door
 Was turning the spinning-wheel;
 And the old brass clock on the mantle-tree,
 Had plodded along to almost three;
- 4. Still the farmer sat in his easy chair,
 While close to his heaving breast,
 The moistened brow and the cheek so fair,
 Of his sweet grandchild were pressed:
 His head bent down on her soft hair lay—
 Fast asleep were they both that summer day.
 Anonymous.

QUESTIONS.

1. What farmer? Does the in-phrase denote place or manner of sitting? What actions are going on at the same time? Meaning of hale? Change as many phrases as admit it to some other form. What qualities of girl are mentioned? Of wife? Make two predicates in the first sentence. 2. Change as many phrases as admit it to some other form. Reduce the first two sentences to one. Give the principal parts of all the verbs. How does self-same differ from same? Substitute another word for stole. What is the antecedent of it? 3. What is the simple predicate in the second line? Is the

where-clause adverbial? Does the by-phrase modify wife or turning? Make the statement of the third and fourth lines in as few words as possible. Mention all the predicates and tell what each denotes. 4. What does still denote? What other action is at the same time with sat? How fair is so fair? How did his head lie? What does asleep denote? What does fast denote? What is the complex subject of were pressed? Write this verse in the order of prose. Mention all the participles of concomitant action in the passage. Mention all the compound words. How many sentences in it as it stands? Give each simple proposition by itself.

LESSON LXV.

- 1. It was a pleasant morning in the time
- 2. When the leaves fall; and the bright sun shone out
- 3. As when the morning stars first sang together;
- 4. So quietly and calmly fell the light
- 5. Upon a world at rest. One hour stole on,
- 6. And then another of the morning, calm
- 7. And still as Eden ere the birth of man.
- 8. Then the old man, and his descendants, went
- 9. Together to the house of God. All knelt
- 10. In attitude of prayer, and then the hymn
- 11. Sincere in its low melody, went up
- 12. To worship God. The white-haired pastor rose,
- 13. And looked upon his flock, and with an eye
- 14. That told his interest, and voice that spoke,
- 15. In tremulous accents, eloquence like Paul's,
- 16. He lent Isaiah's fire to the truths
- 17. Of revelation, and persuasion came

- 18. Like gushing waters from his lips, till hearts
- 19. Unused to bend were softened, and the eye
- 20. Unwont to weep sent forth the willing tear.

N. P. Willis.

QUESTIONS.

1. What is the subject of was? Express the * * * fall in one word. 2. What leaves? What sun? 3. How did the sun shine out? What stars? Supply the ellipsis between as and when. Is sang transitive? 4. What is the connection between this and the preceding? 5. Express at rest in one word. Substitute another expression for stole on. 6. What does calm modify? What morning? 7. What case is Eden? What part of speech is ere? 8. Who went? Is the made definite by any thing in the extract? 9. How did they go? Whither did they go? All who? 10. How did they kneel? 11. How is the hymn described? In what respect sincere? 12. What does to worship denote? What three things did the pastor do? 13. What sort of noun is flock? Has it a plural? Write the declension of eye. 14. What told? Has interest a plural? What other form of spoke? Which is the better? 15. Compare tremulous. Like Paul's what? What does like modify? 16. What are the objects of lent? 17. How did persuasion come? 18. Is gushing compared? Does the till-clause denote time? Does it denote any thing else? 19. What part of speech is unused? Syntax of to bend? 20. Of to weep? Give another verb for sent forth.

LESSON LXVI.

1. It was not much more than eight o'clock when he went up the stone steps to the door of Tessa's room. 2. Usually she heard his entrance into the house, and ran to meet him, but not to-night; and when he opened the door he saw

the reason. 3. A single dim light was burning above the dying fire, and showed Tessa in a kneeling attitude by the head of the bed where the child lay. 4. Her head had fallen aside on the pillow, and her brown rosary, which usually hung above the pillow over the picture of the Madonna and the golden palm branches, lay in the loose grasp of her right hand. 5. She had gone fast asleep over her beads. 6. Tito stepped lightly across the little room, and sat down close to her. 7. She had probably heard the opening of the door as part of her dream, for he had not been looking at her two moments before she opened her eyes. 8. She opened them without any start, and remained quite motionless looking at him, as if the sense that he was there smiling at her shut out any impulse which could disturb that happy passiveness. Romola, Chap. XXXIV.

QUESTIONS.

1. What is the subject? The attribute? Can these be joined properly? What does the up-phrase denote? The to-phrase? What does than connect? 2. Is usually compared? What does to meet denote? What kind is the whole sentence? What kind is each part? The reason of what? 3. What does single modify? How did the light show Tessa? Where did it show her? 4. Is the where-clause adverbial? Is the which clause descriptive? What does over show the relation of? What does golden modify? 5. What is the simple predicate? Does the over-phrase denote place? 6. Is close adjective or adverb? 7. What does probably modify? What does as connect? What is the for-clause the reason of? What is the relation of time between the before-clause and the preceding one? 8. How did she open them? What is the simple predicate of the and-sentence? What does looking modify? Supply the ellipsis between as and if. What sense? What does smiling modify?

GENERAL QUESTIONS.

Find an element denoting comparison of inequality; a clause modifying a dependent one; a partially compound sentence; a simple sentence; a sentence element; a participle of concomitant action; two participial adjectives; two nouns used as adjectives.

Change 1 to a simple sentence; the same with the first sentence of 2; the same with the second part of 2; the same with 3; change 4 to a complex sentence; change 6 to a simple sentence; change the opening of the door to a when-clause. Make she opened her eyes in 7 the principal clause of this part of the sentence. Abridge the which-clause in 8, and the that-clause.

LESSON LXVII.

1. I do then with my friends as I do with my books. 2. I would have them where I can find them, but I seldom use them. 3. We must have society on our own terms, and admit or exclude it on the slightest cause. 4. I cannot afford to speak much with my friend. 5. If he is great, he makes me so great that I cannot descend to converse. 6. In the great days, presentiments hover before me in the firmament. 7. I ought then to dedicate them to myself. 8. I go in that I may seize them, I go out that I may seize them. 9. I fear only that I may lose them receding into the sky, in which they are now only a patch of brighter light. 10. Then, though I prize my friends, I cannot afford to talk with them and study their visions, lest I lose my own. Emerson's Essay on Friendship.

QUESTIONS.

1. What are compared in this sentence? What relation does with show? What one word might be used for do with? 2. What is the

antecedent of them? What mode is would have? What kind of sentence is this, as a whole? Is seldom compared? 3. How must we have society? How must we admit or exclude it? What is it? What mode is admit? 4. Change to speak to another form. 5. What conditional clause in the sentence? What depends on this condition? How great is so great? What does the that-clause de note? Is to converse a verb? 6. What hover? Where? When? 7. Who are them? To what does then refer? 8. What mode is may seize? What kind of sentence, as a whole? 9. What does only modify in each instance? 10. What does then modify? Is the though-clause principal as to the following clause? What does the lest-clause modify? My own what?

What can you say of these sentences, as compared with those of any preceding extract? Can you commit these to memory easily? Can you connect 1 and 2 into one sentence? Are 9 and 10 in any way connected now?

LESSON LXVIII.

1. Soon after the arrival of the rangers, a party of Indian chiefs and warriors entered the camp. 2. They proclaimed themselves an embassy from Pontiac, ruler of all that country, and directed, in his name, that the English should advance no farther until they had had an interview with the great chief, who was already close at hand. 3. In truth, before the day closed, Pontiac himself appeared; and it is here, for the first time, that this remarkable man stands forth distinctly on the pages of history. 4. He greeted Rogers with the haughty demand, what was his business in that country, and how he dared enter it without his permission. 5. He listened with attention to the explanation of the

English, but he only replied that he should stand in their path until morning. 6. Having inquired if the strangers were in need of any thing which his country could afford, he withdrew with his chiefs, at nightfall, to his own encampment. Parkman's Conspiracy of Pontiac.

QUESTIONS.

1. Is this a simple sentence? If so, make it complex. Is party singular or plural? 2. What did they proclaim? What did they direct? What does in his name modify? Change the until-clause to a before-clause. What is the relation of time between the clauses as they stand? What after the change? What does close modify? What is the simple predicate of the who-clause? 3. What do these modify: in truth, for the first time, distinctly? What remarkable man is this man? Put the real subject of the second sentence in the place of it and read the whole; does it sound right? If not, better it. 4. What does the with-phrase denote? The without-phrase? What is the relation of the what-clause and the how-clause to each other? 5. What kind of sentence as a whole? What does only modify? What part of speech is English? 6. Make this into two distinct sentences; make it compound; and explain all the changes. Which is the best form?

Find a double object; a sentence element; an abridged clause; three indirect quotations and change each to direct; one or more indirect objects; a clause dependent on a subordinate clause. Substitute for each pronoun its antecedent. Select all the clauses and phrases denoting time; the same with adverbs of time. Select all the elements which denote manner.

Write the plural number of all the singular nouns? Is farther compared? Change the object of proclaimed in 2 to a that-clause. Make a list of the regular and of the irregular verbs, and compare their number. Make a list of the adverbs, and give the class of each.

LESSON LXIX.

- 1. Firz James was brave. Though to his heart
- 2. The life-blood thrilled with sudden start,
- 3. He manned himself with dauntless air,
- 4. Returned the chief his haughty stare,
- 5. His back against a rock he bore,
- 6. And firmly placed his foot before;
- 7. "Come one, come all! this rock shall fly
- 8. From its firm base as soon as I."
- 9. Sir Roderick marked—and in his eyes
- Respect was mingled with surprise
- 11. And the stern joy which warriors feel
- 12. In foemen worthy of their steel.
- 13. Short space he stood, then waved his hand:
- 14. Down sunk the disappearing band;
- 15. Each warrior vanished where he stood,
- 16. In broom or bracken, heath or wood;
- 17. Sunk brand, and spear, and bended bow,
- 18. In osiers pale and copses low:
- 19. It seemed as if their Mother Earth
- 20. Had swallowed up her warlike birth.

Scott, in Lady of the Lake.

QUESTIONS.

1. To what is the though-clause opposed? 2. Compare sudden. 3. What kind of object is himself? 4. Antecedent of his? Compare haughty. 5. Express the sense of this line in another way. 7, 8. What are these lines the object of? What are compared in 8? How do they compare? What rock is this rock? 9. Marked what? 10. Has respect a plural? Has surprise? What are the adjective forms

of these words? 11. How is the explained? 12. Is steel used in a literal sense? 13. Supply a connective. Is it necessary to the sense? 14. What does down add to the meaning? 15. Could vanished and disappeared change places in these lines? 16. Is another conjunction necessary? 17. What preceding word does sunk correspond with? Would another word do as well here? 18. Why are the adjectives placed after the nouns? 19. Supply the ellipsis between as and if. What does it mean? 20. What is the force of up?

Give the composition of all the compound words. Mention all the adverbs, and compare such as admit of it. Give the meaning of thrilled, haughty, base, stern, bracken, brand, osier, copses. Give the noun-form of these adjectives; sudden, dauntless, haughty, firm, stern, worthy, short, pale, low. Make a list of the copulative and the attributive verbs, and compare their number.

LESSON LXX.

- 1. He ended frowning, and his look denounced
- 2. Desperate revenge, and battle dangerous
- 3. To less than gods. On the other side up rose
- 4. Belial, in act more graceful and humane.
- 5. A fairer person lost not heaven; he seemed
- 6. For dignity composed and high exploit.
- 7. But all was false and hollow, though his tongue
- 8. Dropt manna, and could make the worse appear
- 9. The better reason, to perplex and dash
- 10. Maturest counsels; for his thoughts were low,
- 11. To vice industrious, but to nobler deeds
- 12. Timorous and slothful. Yet he pleased the ear,
- 13. And with persuasive accent thus began.

Paradise Lost, Book II, 106 seq.

QUESTIONS.

1. What is the first simple predicate? 2. Is denounced transitive?

8. What does than connect? What is the subject of rose? 4. What modify Belial? More graceful than what or who? 5. Fairer than who? 6. Meaning of composed here? What is the simple predicate of this sentence? 7. What is the force of but? All what? 9. Syntax of to perplex? 10. What is the for-clause the reason of? 11. Between what does but express an opposition of meaning? 12. What is timorous a quality of? 18. Is accent used in its literal sense?

What is the meaning of desperate, humane, exploit, manna, perplex, maturest, timorous, persuasive. Is there a participle of concomitant action here? Express line 5 in the form of a complex sentence. Which form is better? What is the meaning of the though-clause in 7? What does the yet-clause in 12 imply?

Read this extract aloud and that in Lesson LXV, and notice the difference to the ear. Compare it in the same way with any other extract. If you think it worth while commit it to memory!

LESSON LXXI.

- 1. THEN first since Enoch's golden ring had girt
- 2. Her finger, Annie fought against his will.
- 3. Yet not with brawling opposition she,
- 4. But manifold entreaties, many a tear,
- 5. Many a sad kiss by day and night renewed,
- 6. (Sure that all evil would come out of it)
- 7. Besought him, supplicating, if he cared
- 8. For her or his dear children, not to go.

- 9. He not for his own self caring, but her,
- 10. Her and her children, let her plead in vain,
- 11. So grieving held his will, and bore it through.

 Tennyson's Enoch Arden.

QUESTIONS.

1. Express Enoch's * * * finger in another way. 2. Express fought against in one word. 3. Supply a clause to which the yet-clause is opposed. 4. Is there any difference of meaning between manifold and many a? 5. What does by day modify? 6. What is the syntax of the line as a whole? What is the syntax of the that-clause as a whole? Express come out of it in another way. 7. Does the participle at all denote manner? If not, what does it denote? 8. What does not modify? 9. How does his own self differ from himself? 11. Meaning of held his will? of bore it through?

Give the principal parts of each verb. Give all the adjectives, and tell, carefully, the class of each. Which nouns have no plural? Meaning of brawling, besought, supplicating, entreaties.

Find a double object and explain its parts; are there two such? find a clause denoting time; one denoting condition and tell of what it is the condition; two indirect objects.

LESSON LXXII.

- The fair breeze blew, the white foam flew,
 The furrow followed free;
 We were the first that ever burst
 Into that silent sea.
- Down dropt the breeze, the sails dropt down, 'Twas sad as sad could be;

And we did speak only to break

The silence of the sea!

- 3. All in a hot and copper sky,
 The bloody Sun, at noon,
 Right up above the mast did stand,
 No bigger than the Moon.
- Day after day, day after day,
 We stuck, nor breath, nor motion;
 As talle as a painted ship
 Upon a painted ocean.
- Water, water, everywhere,
 And all the boards did shrink;

 Water, water everywhere,
 Nor any drop to drink.
 Coleridge's Ancient Mariner.

QUESTIONS.

1. What kind of sentence is this stanza? Compare the adjectives which admit of it. What is the force of ever? What would be the grammatical effect of supplying connectives between all the clauses? What would be the effect otherwise? 2. Compare the grammatical structure of this stanza with that of the preceding. What are compared in the second line? What is the syntax of to break? 3. What kind of sentence is this stanza? What is the force of all? What is a copper sky? Is it necessary to supply the ellipsis in the fourth line? What are compared in it? 4. What ellipsis in the second line? What is the grammatical connection of the last two lines with the first two? What are compared in the third line? 5. Make formal sentences of this stanza.

Point out the parts which, as they stand, are without syntax. Is all the extract intelligible, as it stands? Does the mind supply any thing as it is read? Point out any peculiar constructions.

LESSON LXXIII.

1. He very soon set down poor Tom as a thoroughly stupid lad; for though, by hard labor, he could get particular declensions into his brain, any thing so abstract as the relations between cases and terminations could by no means get such a lodgment there as to enable him to recognize a chance genitive or dative. 2. This struck Mr. Stelling as something more than natural stupidity; he suspected obstinacy, or, at any rate, indifference, and lectured Tom severely on his want of thorough application. 3. "You feel no interest in what you are doing, Sir," he would say, and the reproach was painfully true. 4. Tom's perceptive powers were not all deficient, however; I fancy they were quite as strong as those of the Rev. Mr. Stelling. 5. But Mr. Stelling took no note of this; he only observed that Tom's faculties failed him before the hideous abstractions of the Eton Grammar; and that he was in a state bordering on idiocy with regard to the demonstration that two given triangles must be equal, though he could discern with promptitude and certainty the fact that they were equal. Mill on the Floss: Book Second, Chapter First.

QUESTIONS.

1. Construct the first part of this sentence in another form. What conclusion results from the for-clause? What is opposed to the though-clause? What two clauses make the for-clause? What are compared in the last part of the sentence? How do they compare? Change as to enable, etc., to a that-clause. Is it necessary to the sense to supply any ellipsis in the sentence? Is it, to the grammar?

2. What struck Mr. Stelling? What case is something? What does than indicate a comparison of? Is the first member of this sentence simple or complex? What does on his want, etc. denote about lectured? 3. What kind of sentence is the direct quotation? Is the entire sentence? Change the quotation to the indirect form. What is the whole sentence then? 4. What kind of sentence is this? Supply the clause which however suggests. 5. How many distinct sentences make up this sentence? How many subordinate clauses in the second sentence? Tell what each is subordinate to. Write a skeleton—connectives and propositions—of this sentence. How many degrees is the last clause removed from the principal clause? Can you reconstruct the sentence so that it shall be less complicated? Try, but say just what the author says.

Find a sentence-element. Is there an independent element? Are there any such abridged forms of statement as have been explained? Select all the abstract nouns, and give the adjective of corresponding form, if there is any. Form the participles of each verb. Write the declension of the nouns and pronouns. Tell how each plural number is formed. State distinctly the modifying effect of each subordinate clause. What uses of as are illustrated in this passage? What uses of that? Would you write the last clause, that they were equal, or that they are equal?

Compare this extract, as to structure of sentences, with those in Lessons LXVII and LXVIII, and state any point of comparison or contrast you observe. Read this as many times as may be necessary to get the ideas into your mind, and then, without looking at the original or remembering the cast of any sentence in it, write it out in your way. When this is done, compare it with the original and notice, carefully, whether (1) you have said all, essentially, that the original contains, (2) how your structure of sentences compares with the original, and (3) which is the better form, yours or the original.

LESSON LXXIV.

There was a time when meadow, grove, and stream,
 The earth, and every common sight,
 To me did seem

Apparelled in celestial light,

The glory and the freshness of a dream.

It is not now as it hath been of yore:

Turn wheresoe'er I may,

By night or day,

The things which I have seen I now can see no more.

2. The rainbow comes and goes,

And lovely is the rose;

The moon doth with delight

Look round her when the heavens are bare;

Waters on a starry night

Are beautiful and fair:

The sunshine is a glorious birth;

But yet I know, where'er I go,

That there hath passed away a glory from the earth.

3. And O, ye Fountains, Meadows, Hills and Groves, Think not of any severing of our loves.

Yet in my heart of hearts, I feel your might;

I only have relinquished one delight

To live beneath your more habitual sway.

I love the brooks which down their channels fret Even more than when I tripped lightly as they; The innocent brightness of a new-born day

Is lovely yet.

The clouds that gather round the setting sun
Do take a sober coloring from an eye
That hath kept watch o'er man's mortality;
Another race hath been, and other palms are won.
Thanks to the human heart by which we live,
Thanks to its tenderness, its joys and fears,
To me the meanest flower that blows can give
Thoughts that do often lie too deep for tears.

Wordsworth's Ode on Immortality,
First two and last stanzas.

QUESTIONS.

- 1. What is the first simple predicate? What is the office of the when-clause? What is the office of the fifth line? What is not now? What is the office of the as-clause? What is the office of the where-soe'cr-clause? Express this clause in another form. On what is it dependent? Can you put another word in place of apparelled? Try!
- 2. Write a skeleton, putting each proposition in its grammatical place. To what is the but-sentence opposed? Supply a clause between but and yet. Is waters a proper plural? Change where'er I go to a though-clause; does it mean just the same? Can any of these propositions be abridged?
- 3. What is the mode of the first sentence? Of the second? How many distinct sentences in the stanza? Does yet here mean still? Is habitual properly compared? What are compared in the sixth and seventh lines? What does the when-clause modify? What clouds are the clouds? Is the clause that hath kept, etc., descriptive or definitive? Which is the last that-clause?

Select the adjectives of all sorts in this extract, and try whether you can change any one of them without injury to the sense; do the same with the nouns. Commit the passage to memory.

LESSON LXXV.

FINAL EXAMINATION IN THE SUBJECT.

On Sunday mornings I went with the rest of my family to church; it was a church on the ancient model of England, having aisles, galleries, organ, all things ancient and venerable, and the proportions majestic. 2. Here, whilst the congregation knelt through the long litany, as often as we came to that passage, so beautiful among many that are so, where God is supplicated on behalf of "all sick persons and young children," I wept in secret; and raising my streaming eyes to the upper windows of the gallery, I saw on days when the sun was shining a spectacle as affecting as ever prophet can have beheld. 3. The sides of the windows were rich with storied glass: through the deep purples and crimsons streamed the golden light. * * * 4. There were the apostles that had trampled upon earth, and the glories of earth, out of celestial love to man. 5. There were the martyrs that had borne witness to the truth through flames and through torments. 6. There were the saints who had glorified God through meek submission to his will. 7. And all the time I saw through the wide central field of the window, white fleecy clouds sailing over the azure depth of the sky. 8. Immediately under the flash of my sorrow-haunted eye, they grew and shaped themselves into visions of beds with white lawny curtains; and in the beds lay sick and dying children that were weeping clamorously for death. 9. God, for some mysterious reason, could not suddenly release them from their pain; but he suffered the beds, as it seemed, to

rise slowly through the clouds. 10. Slowly the beds ascended into the chambers of the air; slowly, also, his arms descended from the heavens, that he and his young children, whom in Palestine once and forever he had blessed, though they must pass through the dreadful chasm of separation, might yet meet the sooner.

De Quincey.

QUESTIONS ON THE PASSAGE.

- 1. Write the formula for each sentence.
- 2. Describe from the formulas sentences 2, 8, and 10.
- 3. Write out the analysis for each symbol of the formula for sentences 1, 3, 7, and 10.
 - 4. Write skeletons of sentences 6-10.
- 6. Select from the sentences a complex adjective modifier of each form.
 - 7. Select all the sentence elements.
 - 8. Find two adjective clauses with adverbial connectives.
 - 9. Find a descriptive that-clause.
 - 10. Find a final that-clause.
- 11. Find two clauses denoting comparison of equality, and tell what are compared in each.
- 12. Find a concessive clause and tell what it is opposed to in meaning.
 - 13. Find three loose sentences.
 - 14. Find an entire sentence which is simple.
 - 15. Find simple sentences which are parts of other sentences.

From sentence 1, answer the following:

16. What do the phrases, On Sunday morning and on the ancient model denote? 17. Parse rest, having, things, proportions. 18. What is the antecedent of it?

From sentence 2.

19. Does knelt denote a finished or unfinished act? 20. How long did it continue? 21. Parse often, beautiful, affecting, and ever. 22.

Give the principal parts and the mode and tense of each verb. 23. Mention all the adjectives, give the class of each and compare those which admit of it. 24. Define litany, supplicated, streaming, gallery, spectacle.

From sentence 3.

25. Parse storied, purples, golden. 26. Write the second sentence with the usual order of words. 27. What is storied glass? golden light? 28. Can any other preposition take the place of with?

From sentence 4.

29. Where is there? 30. What does the out-of-phrase denote? 31. What does to man denote? 32. Parse there, apostles, love. 33. Define apostles and celestial.

From sentence 5.

34. How many elements in this sentence? 35. Name and give the office of each.

From sentence 6.

36. Are the relative clauses in 4, 5, and 6 descriptive or definitive?

37. How many elements in this sentence? Name each. 38. Is to his will objective or adjective?

39. Define saints, glorified, and submission.

40. Parse who and to.

From sentence 7.

41. Parse time, clouds, and depth. 42. How is the before field defined? 43. Does I saw denote a finished action? 44. What adjectives in the sentence are not compared? 45. Define field, fleecy, and azure.

From sentence 8.

46. What does immediately modify? 47. What does the under-phrase denote? 48. Is for death adverbial? 49. Define vision, lawny, clamorously.

From sentence 9.

50-60. Write the short parsing of sentence 9. Parse, also, as phrases or clauses, 61. for some mysterious reason, 62. from their pain, 63. the beds to rise, 64. as it seemed, 65. through the clouds.

From sentence 10.

66. Parse slowly, that, whom, and sooner. 67. Select all the adver-

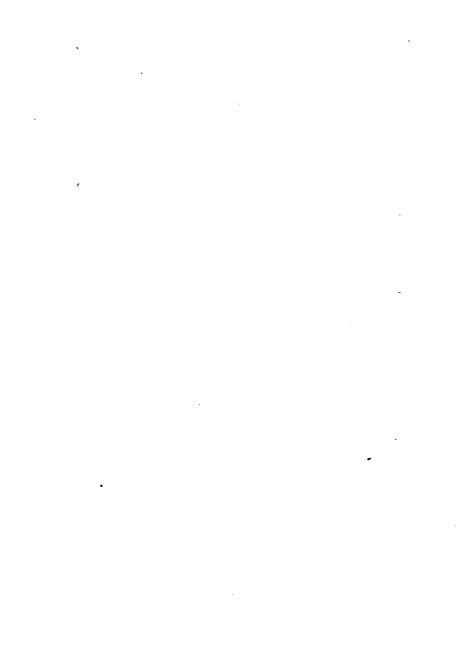
bial elements. 68. Give and decline the pronouns, and mention the antecedent of each. 69. What beds are meant? what chambers? what cham? 70. To what is yet opposed in meaning? 71. What is contrasted with the beds ascended? 72. What mode and tense is must pass? 73. Is there an ellipsis at the end of the sentence? if so, supply it. 74. Parse the, before sooner. 75. What does also modify?

76. Tell how the sentences in this extract seem different from those n any other extract given. 77. Try whether you can with any satisfaction rewrite any of them. 78. Is there any unusual word in the extract? 79. Can you discover any more peculiar, or more complicated, sentences here than in Lesson LXVI. 80. Does the grammatical analysis of the sentence reveal the difference between this extract and that in Lesson LXVIII, as a piece of composition? Are you satisfied, then, to stop in your study of language with what this book teaches?

GENERAL QUESTIONS TO COMPLETE THE FINAL EXAMINATION.

- 81. What is a sentence? What are the kinds, and how is each constructed?
- 82. What is an element in analysis? Illustrate by means of a sentence.
 - 83. Name and define the six grammatical elements.
 - 84. What are the kinds of verbs as used in predication?
 - 85. What may attributes be, and what is asserted by them?
 - 86. What is the importance of the proposition?
 - 87. What is the basis of an element?
 - 88. How are elements classified as to structure?
 - 89. How is the infinitive mode with its subject used?
 - 90. How is it used without a subject?
- 91. Give an example of each kind of objective element, naming each.
 - 92. What offices does the participle perform?
 - 93. State what that is, and give its offices in sentences.

- 94. What kinds of comparison are made in sentences? Give an illustration of each.
 - 95. Write a synopsis of connectives.
- 96. Give some illustrations of the manner of abridging propositions.
 - 97. Give the syntax of the adjective in all its uses.
- 98. Give an example of each kind of verb as to form, signification, etc.
 - 99. How are idea-words combined into elements and sentences?
 - 100. What is the relation of speech to grammar?



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